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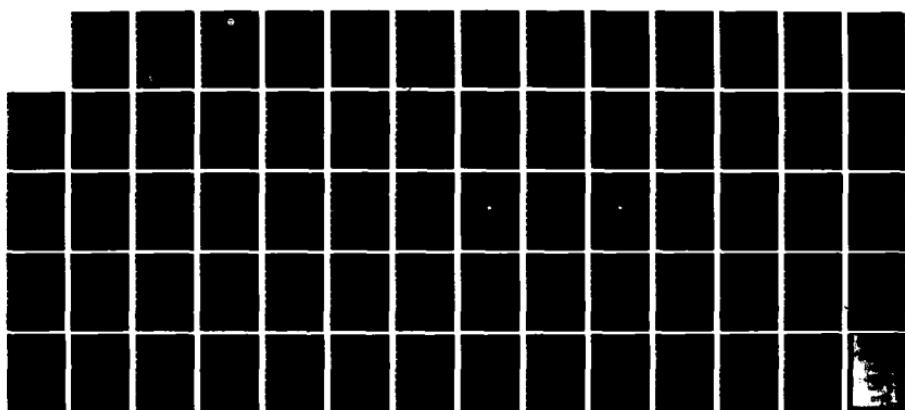
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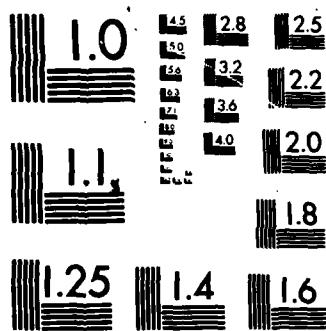
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LIU FAULT DIAGNOSIS INVESTIGATION

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K. J. Campbell (NOSC)
P. L. Stamm
(WESTEC Services, Inc.)
Contract N00123-81-D-0437

November 1983
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January — June 1983

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This report is an investigation of the fault diagnosis algorithm attributed to Dr. Ruey-wen Liu at the University of Notre Dame. This approach is based on a faulty current concept in which a faulty component is modelled as a nominal component with a parallel fault current source. Single component faults trace a line in a measurement space as the fault current source takes on different values. Measurements taken on a sample circuit form a point in the measurement space. The origin of the measurement space is the intersection of the fault lines of the various circuit components and represents the circuit with all components at their nominal values. The Liu fault diagnosis approach is to determine which fault line is closest to the measurement point of the sample circuit.

The circuit used to evaluate the Liu approach is an eight-resistor bridged-T dc network. This nonreactive circuit has been chosen to keep the results simple enough to provide insight into the approach. The dc circuit has two ports, each driven by fixed current sources. The two-port voltages are the coordinates of the two-dimensional measurement space. The effect of component tolerance was taken into consideration when evaluating each of the eight single component faults. A 5-percent worst case tolerance situation was simulated for each fault. In this simulation, components other than the fault itself are set to either +5 percent tolerance or -5 percent tolerance. The combination of tolerances producing the most severe deviation in the output port voltages is chosen as the worst case situation. The fault resistance value is allowed to range from 0 to infinity and the worst case point is calculated.

The results of the investigation revealed that these points outline a trapezoidal region representing the 5-percent worst case tolerance for the entire range of each single component fault. The regions outlined for the eight components overlap considerably near the origin of the measurement space making diagnosis difficult. However, when the faults become extreme the regions separate, making fault diagnosis feasible.

The Liu approach has the advantage of allowing a continuous range of faulty component values. As such, specific fault values are not required to be prehypothesized. By comparison the traditional nearest neighbor rule which uses a fault dictionary approach, has only discrete fault conditions as potential fault candidates for diagnosis.

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SECTION 1
BACKGROUND

In an attempt to provide methods of fault detection and diagnosis in analog circuits, various universities have participated in an effort sponsored by the Office of Naval Research directed towards the development of new mathematical tools. One of these efforts was directed by Dr. Ruey-wen Liu of the University of Notre Dame. This report investigates the practical aspects of implementation of this approach and evaluates its ability to correctly identify known faults.

SECTION 2
CANDIDATE DC CIRCUIT

SELECTION OF THE CANDIDATE DC CIRCUIT

The circuit selected for evaluation of the Liu approach to fault diagnosis is a bridged-T resistive network. The circuit as shown in Figure 1 contains eight resistive components. The components are labelled as conductances G4 through G11. Conductance is the reciprocal of resistance and is used because it is more natural for the fault current model which is central to the Liu approach. This is covered in detail in Section 3. The conductances of all the components except G11 are 1 mho. Component G11 has a conductance of 2 mho. These values are listed in Table 1. The circuit is driven by two current sources I_1 and I_2 driving the ports. Voltages V_1 and V_2 are measured across the two output ports. For the purposes of this evaluation the current sources are either symmetric $I_1 = I_2 = 1$ ampere or asymmetric $I_1 = 1$ and $I_2 = 2$ amperes. The circuit has differing behavior under these two conditions.

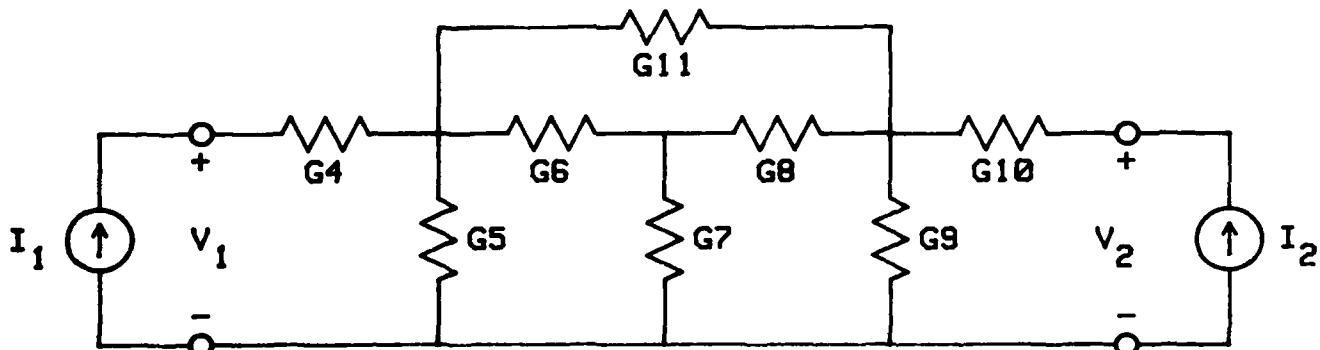


Figure 1. Candidate dc circuit.

The measurements of V_1 and V_2 discussed in this report are incremental changes of V_1 and V_2 away from the quiescent state in which all components are nominal. The incremental changes are caused by component variation due to either a single component fault or nonfaulty component tolerance or both. The term component tolerance is used to describe the variation of nonfaulty components.

Table 1. Nominal component values for dc circuit.

Component Number	Nominal Resistance, ohm	Nominal Conductance, mho
4	R4 = 1.0	G4 = 1
5	R5 = 1.0	G5 = 1
6	R6 = 1.0	G6 = 1
7	R7 = 1.0	G7 = 1
8	R8 = 1.0	G8 = 1
9	R9 = 1.0	G9 = 1
10	R10 = 1.0	G10 = 1
11	R11 = 0.5	G11 = 2

This dc circuit was chosen as the core of our evaluation because it is straightforward enough to provide insight into the Liu approach to fault diagnosis. This approach adds fault current sources in parallel with each branch. Even this circuit has a large number of variables associated with it. Two output ports and two measurement quantities limit the problem to two dimensions, which makes for greater insight into the approach. The concept may readily be extended to multidimensions but is much more difficult to visualize. A non-reactive circuit allows the measurements to be at one frequency (dc) and the measurements are not complex quantities. The approach may readily be extended to multiple frequencies.

SOLUTION OF THE CANDIDATE DC CIRCUIT

The candidate dc circuit is straightforward but the addition of a fault current source in parallel with each component complicates the solution of the circuit. The circuit is driven by current sources I_1 and I_2 and the output port voltages V_1 and V_2 are the measured quantities. Using the fault current model from the Liu approach to fault diagnosis, there are eight component currents, eight component voltages, and eight fault currents to be considered. It is necessary to carefully weigh which of these variables are dependent and which are independent. The desired solution, given the component values, which may deviate from nominal, and the driving currents I_1 and I_2 , is the output port voltages V_1 and V_2 and the slopes of the fault lines. The meaning of these slopes is discussed in Section 3.

The circuit is solved using Kirchoff's Voltage Law and Kirchoff's Current Law. The resultant equations form a 10×10 matrix. This matrix must be inverted to obtain the two output voltages and eight fault line slopes.

SECTION 3

LIU APPROACH TO FAULT DIAGNOSIS

INTRODUCTION

The Liu fault diagnosis approach is based on the fault current concept. A faulty component is modelled by a nominal component with a parallel fault current source. This current source produces exactly the same effect on the circuit as the component becoming faulty.

Measurements of currents or voltages within the circuit or at external ports form a multidimensional space in which each variable represents a dimension. In a linear circuit the injection of fault currents linearly adds to the measurements in proportion to the fault currents. The locus of points generated by the fault current taking on a range of values is a straight line. In a nonlinear circuit the locus of points is also a line but it is not necessarily straight or even continuous. These lines are associated with each single component fault and are termed fault patterns.

The Liu approach also considers the question of separability of the fault patterns. If the fault lines lie close together it is difficult to distinguish one from the other. A fault is diagnosed by making measurements on the sample circuit which determine a point in the multidimensional measurement space. The fault line lying nearest, by some criterion, is diagnosed as the fault in the circuit.

LIU FAULT PATTERN APPROACH

The concept of fault currents is fundamental to the Liu fault diagnosis approach. Figure 2 is an illustration of the fault current concept. The nominal component or branch has a complex admittance Y which is the reciprocal of its complex impedance Z . This branch may be purely resistive, capacitive, or inductive or a combination for purposes of the model. Admittances are appropriate to illustrate the fault current concept. When the nominal component becomes faulty it may be modelled by an increment in admittance ΔY which is parallel with Y . Admittances in parallel add so the faulty component is modelled by an admittance $Y + \Delta Y$. The incremental admittance may be replaced by an appropriate current source J which mimics the behavior of the circuit with a fault component. The sign and magnitude of J are such as to accomplish this replacement. With an applied voltage V across the branch, the fault current is $J = V \cdot \Delta Y$. This current source is also referred to as the fault compensator for this branch because it compensates the nominal component to appear as a faulty one. In general J , V , and ΔY may be complex quantities. A branch that is purely resistive, as is the candidate dc circuit, has a purely real admittance symbolized by the conductance G , the reciprocal of the resistance. In the resistive case, then, $J = V \cdot \Delta G$.

GENERATION OF FAULT PATTERNS

One of the major consequences of the fault current model is particularly interesting for linear circuits. The concept may be equally well applied to

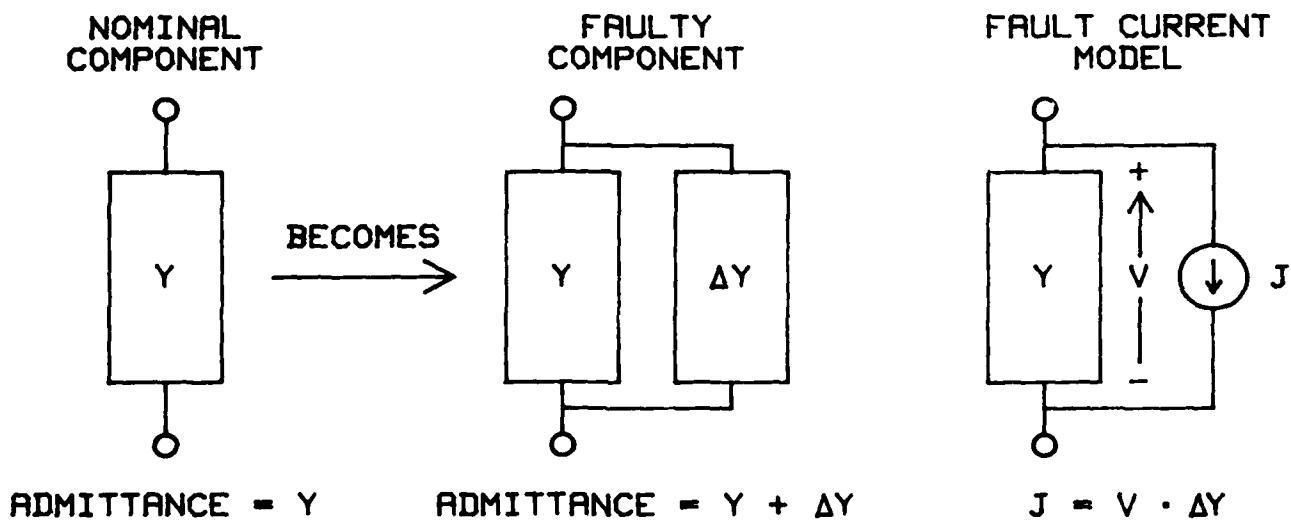


Figure 2. Fault current concept.

nonlinear circuits. In a linear circuit the superposition theorem applies. This theorem states:

The response to several independent current or voltage sources is the sum of the responses to each independent source with the remaining sources zeroed (dead).

The consequence is that the measured values of currents or voltages in the circuit are linearly proportional to the fault current. Some measurements may be independent of fault currents or very slightly affected by them. This is particularly likely when the fault current source and the measurement are distant from each other in the network. The linear relationship of the measurements and fault currents implies that the locus of points traced in the multidimensional measurement space is necessarily a straight line. The fault patterns for the candidate dc circuit are shown in Figure 3. The patterns consist of straight lines of various slopes passing through the origin. The origin in V_1, V_2 space is actually the port voltages measured with all nominal components and no faults. In the figure, V_1 and V_2 are actually increments away from the nominal circuit. These lines do not take into account the fact that with physical components there are limits on the lines. The physically limited locus of points on the fault line is determined by the faulty component taking on values of $R=0$ (short) and $R=\infty$ (open).

The physically limited fault patterns for the symmetric current source case $I_1 = 1$ ampere, $I_2 = 1$ ampere are illustrated by Figure 4. The physically limited fault patterns for the asymmetric current source case $I_1 = 1$ ampere, $I_2 = 2$ amperes are illustrated by Figure 5. These are illustrations of two distinct conditions and do not exhaust all possible current source values. The increase in source current for I_2 to 2 amperes in the asymmetric case increases the length of the fault lines but does not change their slope. This is to be expected from the superposition theorem for a linear circuit. The

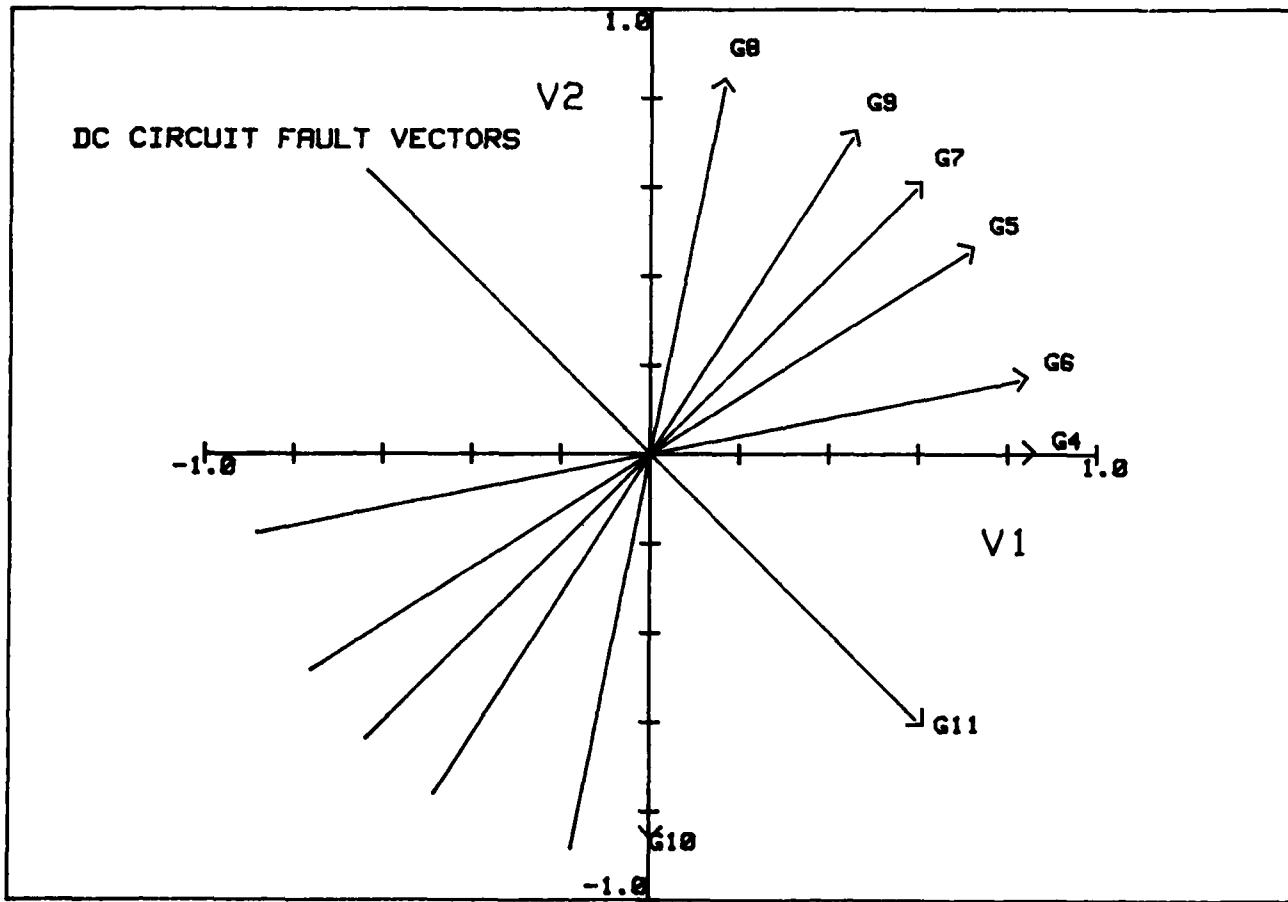


Figure 3. DC circuit fault vectors.

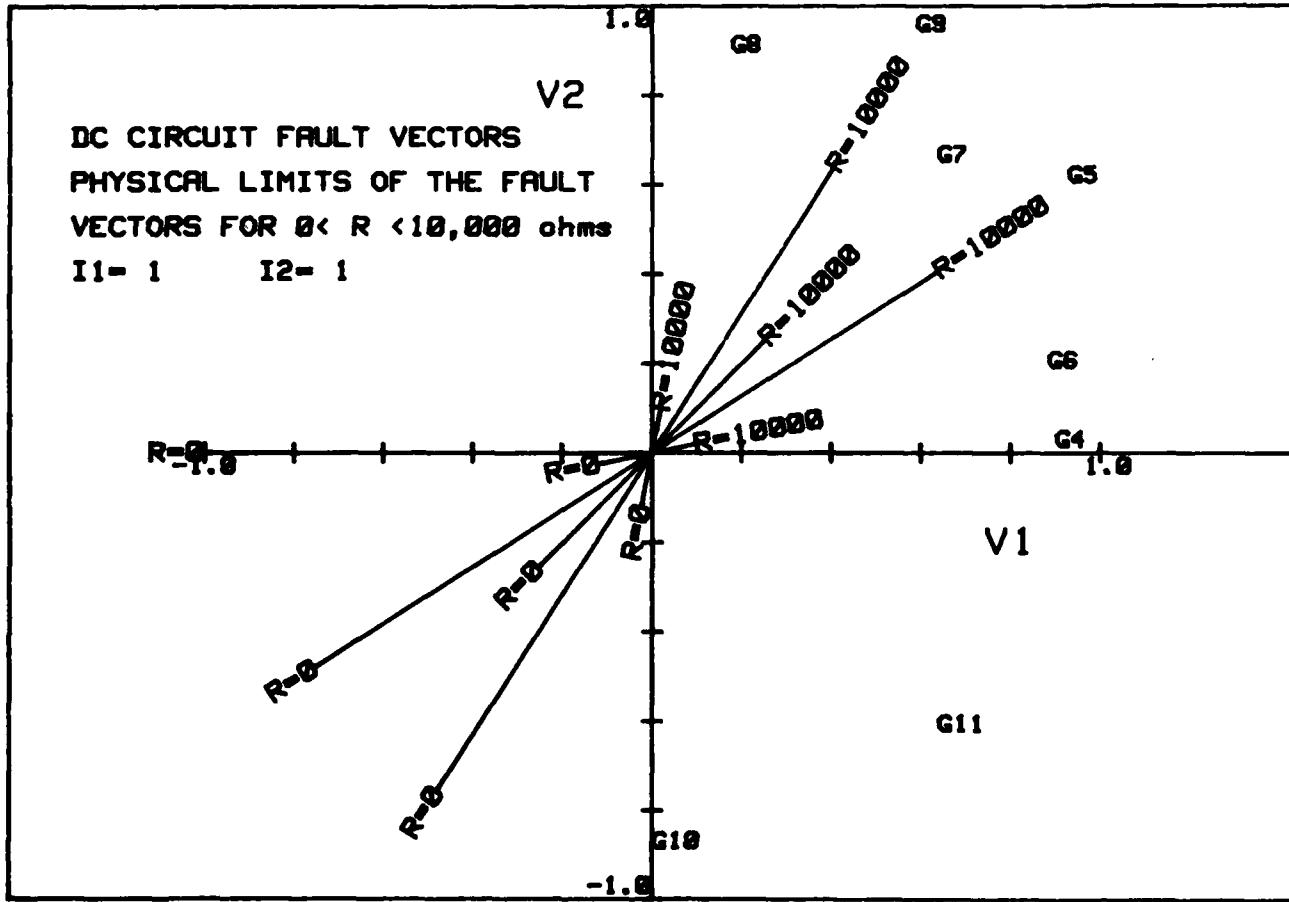


Figure 4. DC circuit fault vectors with physical limits (symmetric current sources).

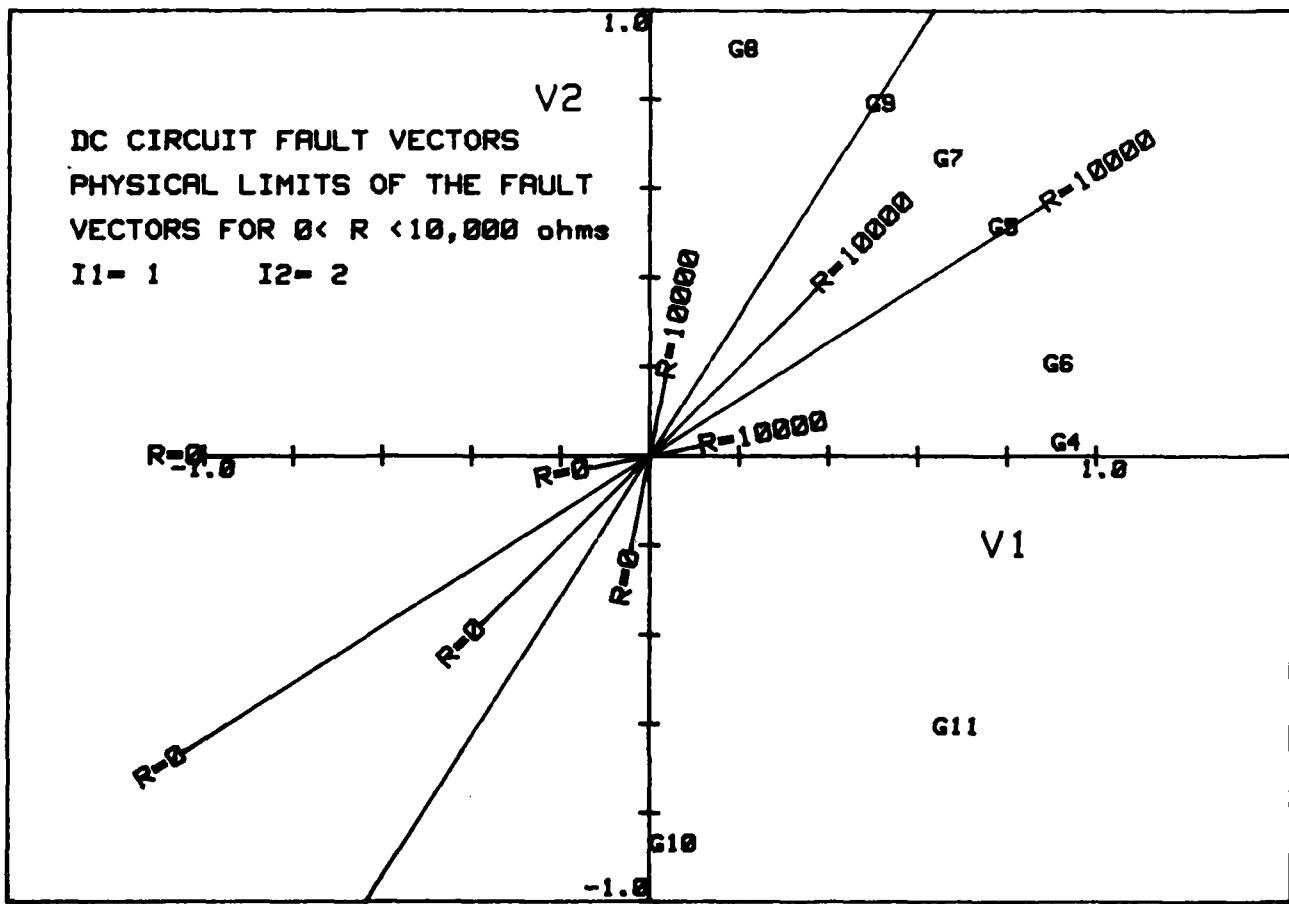


Figure 5. DC circuit fault vectors with physical limits (asymmetric current sources).

fault lines are labelled at each end with $R=0$ (short) and $R=10,000$ (effectively an open). Any larger value for R would not show on the illustration. The fault lines for input conductances $G4$ and $G11$ go to large values of V_1 and V_2 off the plot because they are in series with current sources I_1 and I_2 , respectively.

SEPARABILITY OF FAULT PATTERNS

The pattern associated with single component faults is a fault line in multidimensional space. Fault lines may have very similar slopes and cluster near each other. This is a problem particularly plaguing large, complex circuits. Theoretically, faults may be correctly diagnosed no matter how small the angular separation of the fault lines. This is because a single component fault, with the remaining component perfectly nominal, will produce a measurement falling exactly on the appropriate fault line. In practice even a small amount of component tolerance may change the slope of many of the fault lines. This is discussed in more detail in Section 4.

EFFECT OF COMPONENT TOLERANCE

Figure 6 illustrates the effect of component tolerance on the fault line (or vector) for component 6. The line (or vector) labelled $G6$ is that obtained with all nominal component values with the exception of single component faults in component 6. To illustrate the effect of component tolerance, the line (or vector) labelled $G6'$ which lies above the $G6$ line is obtained with all nominal component values with the exception of $R7$, which is 1.3 ohms rather than 1 ohm, and the exception of single component faults in component 6. The effect is to both shift the fault line and alter its slope. The origin shift point on Figure 6 is labelled with an "*". This is the point in measurement space where component 6 takes on its nominal value of 1 ohm. The origin has been shifted due to a tolerance of +30 percent in $R7$. In addition, the slope of the component 6 fault line has become slightly smaller due to the effect of +30 percent tolerance in $R7$ on the whole network.

DECISION CRITERIA

For the ideal case where all components are exactly nominal with the exception of the single fault, that fault would be diagnosed as belonging to the correct fault pattern. An exception would be two fault lines identical in slope. The decision criterion applied to determine which fault pattern is "closest" to the measurement may affect which fault is diagnosed. Choosing the fault pattern lying the closest in the Euclidean sense to the measurement point is the nearest neighbor criterion. Choosing the most likely fault pattern is the maximum likelihood criterion. The maximum likelihood decision criterion takes into account the probability distribution of each component's tolerance and the probability distribution of each fault. The maximum likelihood criterion weighs the Euclidean distance measure by the inverse of the standard deviation of the associated probability distribution. The closest in this sense is the most likely fault. The difficulty with this method is that a probability density or at least a standard deviation must be known or assumed for each component. If the standard deviations associated with the components are assumed to be equal, then the maximum likelihood and nearest neighbor criteria become the same.

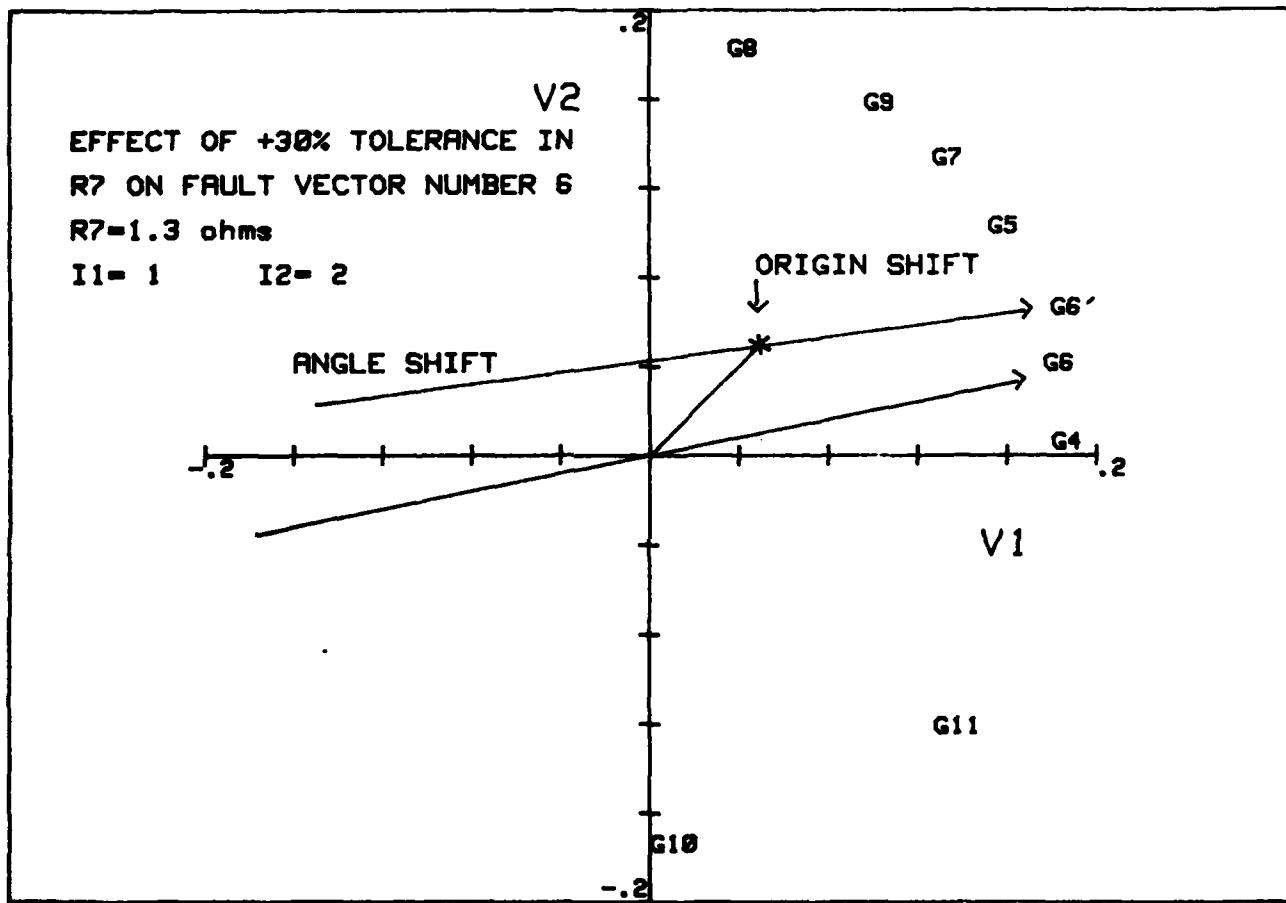


Figure 6. Vector angle and origin shift due to component tolerance.

ROBUSTNESS CONSIDERATION

The robustness of a fault-diagnosing scheme is its immunity to component tolerance in the nonfaulty components. A lack of robustness is a major shortcoming of most fault-diagnosing schemes. This is because actual circuits do have variations in their component values which cause the fault patterns to shift. Fault patterns which cluster near each other without component tolerance become indistinguishable in the presence of component tolerance. Fault patterns which have distinctly different slopes are more likely to be distinguished in the presence of component tolerance. The greater the extent of component tolerance the more likely faults may not be distinguished and properly diagnosed. The greater the severity of a fault the more likely it is to be correctly diagnosed.

SECTION 4
EFFECT OF COMPONENT TOLERANCE ON THE DC CANDIDATE CIRCUIT

INTRODUCTION

The real challenge to a fault-diagnosing approach is component tolerance. This is variation of the nonfaulty components away from nominal design values. For this evaluation the faulty component is allowed to range through a set of physically attainable values. The remaining components are allowed to vary +5 percent or -5 percent as they would off-the-shelf. The reason that component tolerance is a challenge to the diagnosis approach lies in the pattern matching, which is the basis of the approach. Measurements made on the sample circuit produce a point in the measurement space. This point is matched to one of the fault patterns. With no component tolerance this measurement point would fall exactly on a fault pattern. Fault diagnosis is straightforward with no tolerance. Component tolerance moves this point away from the correct fault pattern and possibly toward another fault pattern. The nearest fault pattern may be the wrong choice. The greater the component tolerance, the more likely the fault diagnosis will be incorrect.

WORST-CASE 5-PERCENT TOLERANCE

To determine the robustness of the Lui fault diagnosis approach a worst-case analysis was implemented. This was done by computer simulation on the Hewlett-Packard HP9826 computer and associated printer and plotter. Worst-case fault region plots drawn on the HP plotter are presented as Appendix A. This hardware system is described in Appendix B. The software is listed in Appendix C. The software is described later in this section. Component tolerance of 5 percent above and below nominal was chosen as representative of the extreme state of tolerance for each nonfaulty component. These are the upper and lower limits for 5 percent components typically found in practical circuitry.

Single component faults were simulated for each of the eight components G4 through G11. The faulty component was allowed to take on values from 0 to 50 ohms. Table 2 lists the set of values used to produce the fault region plots to analyze robustness to tolerance. The resistance values are chosen to produce relatively even increments along the fault line. They are not intended to be uniform steps of resistance. The simulation illustrates the conditions in which the driving current sources are the same $I_1 = 1$ ampere and $I_2 = 1$ ampere, and dissimilar $I_1 = 1$ ampere and $I_2 = 2$ amperes. These current source conditions are termed the symmetric and asymmetric cases, respectively.

The worst-case region for each component and for the symmetric and asymmetric current cases was determined by computer simulation. These regions for each fault type are discussed in detail in Section 4.5. The regions are traced by the voltages V_1 and V_2 computed for the set of faulty resistance values while the remaining components take on the worst possible set of +5 percent or -5 percent tolerances. The worst set of tolerances will have some components at +5 percent and others at -5 percent. The set which causes the calculated V_1 , V_2 point to be the furthest from the fault line is the worst-case set.

Table 2. Fault resistance range.

<u>Resistance (ohms)</u>	<u>Condition Simulated</u>
0.00	Short
0.05	Low Value
0.10	Low Value
0.20	Low Value
0.35	Low Value
0.50	Nominal (R11 only)
0.70	Low (except R11) High (R11 only)
1.00	Nominal (except R11)
1.50	High Value
2.00	High Value
3.50	High Value
10.00	High Value
50.00	Open

WORST-CASE SIMULATION METHOD

The worst case of component tolerance is that combination of 5-percent tolerance extremes above and below nominal in the seven nonfaulty components which results in the greatest displacement of V_1 and V_2 . The displacement is from V_1 and V_2 measurements with the nonfaulty components at their exact nominal value. There are $128 = 2^7$ such combinations that must be considered to determine the worst possible combination.

A rigorous network solution for all of these 128 combinations and for each of 8 possible faulty components and each of 13 fault resistance values is a lengthy calculation. There are a total of 13,312 such cases requiring a network solution. The HP9826 is extremely fast, but the dc circuit solution requires 4.58 seconds to determine the port voltages. Performing the simulation directly would require 1016 minutes, which is nearly 17 hours. This calculation time is for just the symmetric current source case and would be repeated for the asymmetric current case. While this is not beyond reason by itself, there is also the interaction of the HP9872B plotter which takes several minutes for each fault region. Bearing this in mind, the simulation would require 3 working days for each current source condition. The plots have individual artifacts which require running the entire program to discover

and correct. This and the general problem of perfecting the program make a 3-day turnaround impractical. A linearization technique based on perturbation theory is an answer to this problem.

The network solution centers around the 10×10 connection matrix Q which is formed in the program DC CIRCUIT from component values in the network. The values in the Q matrix are actually component values and their location in the Q matrix is determined by the connection topology of the network. A rigorous solution of the network requires that Q be inverted. The actual output port voltages V_1 and V_2 are linearly formed from the input currents I_1 and I_2 and Q^{-1} which is the inverse of Q . Small changes in component values are reflected in small changes in Q and perturbation theory addresses the question of what such perturbations do to Q^{-1} which is the matrix from which V_1 and V_2 are obtained. A perturbation in Q may be represented by a perturbation in the identity matrix I multiplying Q since $Q = IQ$. The perturbed Q matrix is $Q_p = (I-P)Q$. The perturbations are associated with the identity matrix and given a negative sign so they are appropriate for the Neuman series. Perturbation theory is based on the Neuman series, which is an expansion of the inverse of a perturbed identity matrix I . P is a small perturbation in this matrix. The Neuman series:

$$(I-P)^{-1} = I + P + P^2 + P^3 + \dots$$

For a small enough perturbation matrix P relative to I , the higher terms vanish relative to I . This concept is usually applied to rounding error which is very small (<0.1 percent) but applies well to the 5-percent tolerance we are using in our worst-case model. The implication from perturbation theory is that for small enough perturbations the inverse is linearly related to the perturbation. Namely:

$$(I-P)^{-1} = I + P.$$

The perturbed matrix $Q_p = (I-P)Q$ has an inverse $Q_p^{-1} = Q^{-1}(I-P)^{-1}$ from matrix theory. For a small enough perturbation, this becomes $Q_p^{-1} = Q^{-1}(I+P)$, which evaluates as $Q_p^{-1} = Q^{-1} + Q^{-1}P$. So, the change in the inverse of Q is linearly related to the inverse itself and is in fact just $Q^{-1}P$. This is the mathematical basis of our linearization.

Computational evidence indicates linearization is feasible for 5-percent component tolerance. The combined effect of multiple component tolerance may be modelled as the sum of the effect of each component tolerance individually. The 128 combinations of 5-percent extreme component tolerance are tested with this linearization technique to determine the worst-case combination. Although this linearized result is a reasonable approximation to the output voltages V_1 and V_2 , a simple refinement is possible. This refinement is to calculate the exact network solution with the worst-case set of components. This method is much faster than solving the network problem 128 times.

¹Stewart, G.W., Introduction to Matrix Computations (New York: Academic Press, 1973).

PROGRAM DESCRIPTIONS

DC WORST

This program generates the 5-percent tolerance worst-case plots. These plots outline the worst-case region. For each of the eight components the nominal fault line is generated by computing V_1 and V_2 for the range of 13 fault values from 0 to 50 ohms as shown in Table 2. The nonfaulty components are at their nominal values to produce the nominal fault line. For each of the 13 fault values it is desired to determine a combination of nonfaulty component tolerances which cause the point in V_1 , V_2 space to move the furthest from the nominal fault line. Each nonfaulty component may be at either +5 percent or -5 percent tolerance. There are $2^7 = 128$ combinations of tolerance conditions. The distance from the nominal fault line is examined for each of these combinations. The network is not solved exactly 128 times. A linearization technique based on the inverse of a perturbed identity matrix is used to speed this calculation process.² The origin shift and slope shift are precomputed for a +5 percent and -5 percent component tolerance for all the components. These shifts are accumulated for the combination of tolerances at hand. The program cycles through all 128 combinations until the one is found that shifts the measurement point the furthest from the nominal fault line. This combination is used to solve the network exactly. Summing a precalculated shift is far faster than solving the network. This is particularly significant since the calculation would have to be done 128 times to merely find the worst case. The worst-case points are plotted and connected to form the worst-case region.

DC CIRCUIT

This program is really the core of solving the Candidate DC Circuit. Given the driving currents and component values, this program determines the fault line slopes and voltages V_1 and V_2 at the output ports. It sets up the connection matrix, solves the circuit for the dependent variables by matrix inversion, and computes the desired results.

DC PLOT

This program initializes the plotting system and paints the background for most of the illustrations. The V_1 and V_2 axes are plotted and labelled and the fault line slopes labelled as G4 through G11.

ATN

This is a two-quadrant arctangent function not supplied by Hewlett-Packard. It returns an angle in degrees between +90 and -90, given the X and Y coordinate of a point.

²Stewart, G.W., Introduction to Matrix Computations (New York: Academic Press, 1973).

MATMULT

This simple subroutine multiples two real matrices. It simplifies matrix operations used in the program DC CIRCUIT.

MATINV

This subroutine uses a factor³ approach to the Gauss-Jordan elimination algorithm to invert a matrix in place. Within the MATINV subroutine the subroutine LU generates the lower and upper triangular factors. The function FACTOR obtains permuted factors.

DISCUSSION OF 5-PERCENT FAULT REGIONS

Figures A-1 through A-16 in Appendix A show the fault regions for the 5-percent tolerance worst case for faulty components 4 through 11, for symmetric current sources, and then for asymmetric current sources.

There are several possibilities that these regions bring up when deciding if a given measurement belongs to one region or another. Especially near the origin when the faulty component is nearly nominal, all of the fault regions overlap. As the fault becomes more severe, the regions begin to separate and become distinct from each other. There are also forbidden regions where a measurement would not fall into any of the regions. Obtaining such a measurement implies a multiple component fault or component tolerance outside the 5-percent worst-case assumption. The type of decision criterion also makes a difference as to how these regions should be viewed. For example, a measurement point could fall directly inside a measurement region but using maximum likelihood it could be diagnosed to be in an altogether different fault region. This is possible because maximum likelihood normalized the distance measure by the standard deviation associated with a given fault.

DEFINITION OF THE 5-PERCENT TOLERANCE FAULT REGION

The 5-percent tolerance fault region is formed by fault incidents in which faulty components take on values from the list in Table 2. For each fault value the seven remaining nonfaulty components take on all 128 combinations of +5 percent or -5 percent tolerance and the computer simulation solves the dc circuit for port voltages V_1 and V_2 . The combination which causes V_1 and V_2 to deviate the furthest from the fault line is chosen as the worst 5-percent tolerance case. The deviation is measured as Euclidean distance from the fault line with no component tolerance on the nonfaulty components. The method of this simulation is described in greater detail in Section 4, Worst-Case Simulation Method.

³ Arden, Bruce W., and Kenneth N. Astill, Numerical Algorithms: Origins and Applications (Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1970).

FAULT REGION FIGURES

The 5-percent worst-case tolerance fault regions shown in Figures A-1 through A-16 generally are finite two-dimensional trapezoids. In the special case of a component fault in R4 or R10, the trapezoid becomes infinitely long, as shown in Figures A-1, A-7, A-9 and A-15, respectively. These infinite trapezoids occur because R4 and R10 are series input resistors to the candidate circuit and are driven by constant current sources. As R4 or R10 ranges from a zero resistance (short) to an infinite resistance (open) the voltages V_1 and V_2 range from zero to infinity. The voltage drops across the remainder of the circuit, other than R4 and R10, do not change since the driving forces are two constant current sources. The fault region for component R11 is also a special case. When the driving current sources $I_1 = 1$ ampere and $I_2 = 1$ ampere are symmetric, the R11 fault region reduces to a bounded line in V_1 , V_2 space as shown in Figure A-8. This line extends from $V_1 = 0.05$ volt and $V_2 = 0.05$ volt to $V_1 = -0.05$ volt and $V_2 = -0.05$ volt. When the driving current sources $I_1 = 1$ ampere and $I_2 = 2$ amperes are asymmetric, the R11 fault region assumes the trapezoidal form shown in Figure A-16. The apparent slight bowing out⁴ of the fault regions is an optical illusion related to Zollner's illusion. Zollner's illusion is the earliest of the optical illusions and dates to 1860. It is manifest when parallel lines are hatched and no longer appear parallel to the eye.

ROBUSTNESS CONSIDERATION

The fault regions illustrated by Figures A-1 through A-16 may be used to gain some insight into the robustness of the Liu fault diagnosis approach. The regions illustrated are the extreme examples of the worst case of 5-percent component tolerance. All of the worst-case fault regions overlap each other, particularly near the origin. Single component faults R6, R8, and R11 residing in the interior of the circuit have little effect on the measured port voltages. In fact, with symmetric current sources, the value of R11 has no effect at all on the measured port voltages. Faults in R5, R7, or R9 have a substantial effect on the measured port voltages. With severe enough faults to these components, the faults can be diagnosed. The fault regions for R6 and R8 are very small and are bounded by less than 0.2 volt in V_1 and V_2 . These fault regions overlap all of the others and would be difficult to diagnose. The fault region for component R11 is a bounded line with symmetrical current sources (Figure A-8). The fault region for component R11 with asymmetric current sources is a bounded trapezoid and is typical of the majority of the fault regions. In these worst-case examples, the Liu fault diagnosis technique does not appear to be robust in terms of immunity to component tolerance. A fault in R11 is completely undetectable if the current sources are symmetric. Even extreme faults in R6 or R8 fall within the same fault region as R4, R5, R7, R9, or R10. Faults R4, R5, R7, R9, and R10 are separable when at or near the extremes of the fault (open or short). These form a nonintersecting set when near the extremes. The robustness of other fault combinations may be estimated by comparing the fault regions involved. There are far too many possible combinations to treat in a detailed fashion. The saving grace of the Liu fault diagnosis is that these examples are not likely

⁴Tolansky, S., Optical Illusions (London: Permagon Press, 1964).

to occur. The probable case is described in the next subsection. The worst case is illustrated only as a severe challenge to the Liu diagnosis concept.

PROBABLE CASE

The 5-percent worst-case example for the candidate dc circuit assumes the worst possible combination of 5-percent component tolerance. Each component is at one 5-percent extreme or the other. It is interesting to compare this worst case with the probable case. The seven component distributions are assumed to be independent. The central limit theorem states:

The sum of many independent random variables approaches a Gaussian-distributed variable.

Therefore, the sum of the effects of component tolerances on the port voltages V_1 and V_2 as contributed by the nonfaulty components tends toward a Gaussian distribution. This is also a consequence of the linear effect of small perturbations in the component values. The previous illustration and discussion have been for the case where all nonfaulty components take on their most deleterious 5-percent extremes. This is an extremely unlikely event in actual practice. The probable case includes the 68 percent of all component tolerance states falling within one standard deviation on an assumed joint Gaussian distribution.

In practice, +5 percent tolerance means that no component from a production run will be allowed to fall outside tolerance range.⁵ If a component is outside this range it is by definition faulty. The manufacturing and sorting techniques employed for components tend to make the distribution of values bimodal. The values do tend to lie at the +5 percent or -5 percent extremes with few in the middle. If they should fall in the middle they would be sorted out for 2-percent or even 1-percent components. So the sorting technique actually removes most components not at the extremes, thereby leaving a bimodal distribution.

From the central limit theorem mentioned previously the effect of joint distribution of component tolerance on port voltages V_1 and V_2 tends towards a Gaussian with increasing numbers of components. Assuming a Gaussian distribution, we can outline the probable case of component tolerance to contrast with the worst case we have previously illustrated. Given a bimodal component distribution, the probability of +5 percent tolerance is 0.5 and the probability of -5 percent tolerance is 0.5. The joint probability that all seven nonfaulty components are at their worst-case is $(0.5)^7 = 0.0078$. From a table⁶ of Integrals of the Gaussian normal error function, this is 2.42

⁵Westman, H.P., ed., Reference Data for Radio Engineers (New York: Howard W. Sams & Co., Inc., 1972).

⁶Holman, J.P., Experimental Methods for Engineers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1978).

standard deviations from the mean. Since one standard deviation encloses 68 percent of all cases, the fault region represented by the probable case would shrink the region by a factor of 2.42 in both axes. The fault region area would shrink by a factor of 5.86. The overlap of the fault regions in this probable-case situation is very much less than the worst case we have illustrated. The likelihood of a correct fault diagnosis is much improved in the probable case.

SECTION 5

COMPARISON OF NEAREST NEIGHBOR RULE AND LIU APPROACH

FAULT DICTIONARY AND FAULT PATTERN APPROACHES

The benchmark for comparison with the Liu approach to fault diagnosis is the classical nearest neighbor rule. For the nearest neighbor rule a fault dictionary is constructed which consists of a set of preselected fault conditions. These faults must be discrete faulty component values. A short in some component may be one dictionary entry and an open in the same component may be another entry. Other less severe fault conditions in the same component may form further entries in the fault dictionary. To adequately cover all potential faults may require a very large dictionary. Associated with each dictionary fault is the set of measurements in multidimensional space that this fault would produce. The dictionary represents a set of points in the multidimensional measure space. Each measurement port may be measured at more than one frequency or may be complex and the number of dimensions may become very large. If the measurement is a complex voltage or current, the number of dimensions is doubled. The magnitude or phase alone of the measurement may be used, in which case the dimensions would not double.

Measurements are made on a test circuit to determine if one of the faults in the fault dictionary is present. The measurements on the test circuit constitute a point in the multidimensional space. The dictionary faults also reside as points in this space. The nearest neighbor rule associates the test point with the nearest (in the Euclidean sense) point in the fault dictionary set. This fault is diagnosed as the test circuit fault.

The Liu approach is quite different. In this approach a set of fault patterns is generated which corresponds to the fault dictionary of the nearest neighbor rule. These patterns are lines rather than points in multidimensional space. These lines are the locus of points formed in the measurement space when a component or branch takes in all possible values. For example, the fault pattern of a resistance is the line formed when it takes on values from zero through infinity. In a linear circuit the fault patterns are straight lines.

A test circuit measurement forms a point in the multidimensional measurement space. The fault line which is nearest (again in the Euclidean sense) to the point is the fault diagnosed for the circuit. For a circuit with all nominal values except for the fault, the measurement point will be exactly on one of the fault lines. Particularly when all components are nominal, the Liu approach can diagnose not only which component is faulty but what value it has taken on. This is because the locus of points bears a one-to-one relationship with the value of the faulty component. This may not necessarily be true for a nonlinear circuit.

SEPARABILITY CONSIDERATION

The issue of separability of the fault dictionary entries in the nearest neighbor rule and the fault patterns in the Liu approach are considerably different. The first consists of a set of points and the second consists of a set of lines passing through the origin. The origin is the point in measurement space for which all components are nominal. These points or lines may form clusters which are either near each other in space or similar to each other in slope. The further apart in space the fault dictionary entries are, for the nearest neighbor rule, the more likely a fault may be correctly diagnosed. The greater the angular separation for the Liu fault patterns, the more likely this approach is to correctly diagnose a fault.

ROBUSTNESS CONSIDERATION

The robustness of a fault diagnosing approach is a measure of its immunity to tolerance in the nonfaulted components. The nearest neighbor and Ruey-wen Liu approaches do very well when the nonfaulted components are at exactly their nominal values. The shortcoming of either approach becomes evident when component tolerance is introduced. This is because the fault dictionary of the nearest neighbor approach or the fault pattern of the Liu approach assumes that the nonfaulted components are exactly at their nominal values. The fault diagnosis is a form of pattern recognition. Component tolerance blurs the template which is being matched. In the nearest neighbor rule the dictionary points become clouds of points as the components take on a distribution of values. There is potential for overlap between these clouds. The fault patterns of the Liu approach become regions around the nominal fault line. Examples of this for the candidate dc circuit are illustrated by Figures A-1 through A-16 in Appendix A. These are for 5-percent tolerance worst cases for each of the fault patterns. For these worst cases the overlap of the fault regions is considerable, especially for soft faults where the fault is not extreme.

SECTION 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The canonical nearest neighbor rule and the fuzzy distance measure attributed to Dr. Samuel Bedrosian of the University of Pennsylvania are fault diagnosis approaches based on a fault dictionary. These approaches hypothesize a set of fault conditions in which a component or components take on a fault state with specific values. The nearest neighbor rule and Bedrosian fuzzy distance measure approaches both match the test circuit measurements to one or more of the hypothesized faults in the fault dictionary. The limitation is that a component may fail in a way other than the finite number of possibilities in the fault dictionary and not be properly diagnosed.

The Liu fault pattern approach has the tremendous advantage of representing an infinite and continuous number of fault conditions for a single component fault. Its disadvantage is the restriction to a single component fault situation. This is not considered a severe limitation since multiple faults are not common enough to be of great concern.

Immunity to component tolerance is not a simple issue because it is so dependent on the individual circuit topology and the individual components in that circuit. In the fault dictionary approaches, the faults are represented by points in the measurement space. Component tolerance on a statistical basis replaces these points by more or less spherical clouds centered on the points. The possibility exists that these clouds will intersect making diagnosis unreliable. In the Liu fault pattern approach, the faults are represented by lines which are the locus of points in measurement space as the fault goes through a range of values. Component tolerance on a statistical basis replaces those lines by more or less cylindrical clouds centered on the lines. These cylindrical clouds all pass through the measurement space origin. Near that origin all of the clouds overlap making diagnosis of soft faults unlikely. As the severity of the faults increase and we move away from the common origin, the cylinders become distinct from one another. Fault diagnosis may become reliable in this case. The Liu fault pattern approach is not fundamentally more immune to component tolerance than the fault dictionary approaches. However, the Liu fault pattern approach is superior because it can diagnose a continuum of fault conditions.

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APPENDIX A
WORST-CASE FAULT REGION PLOTS

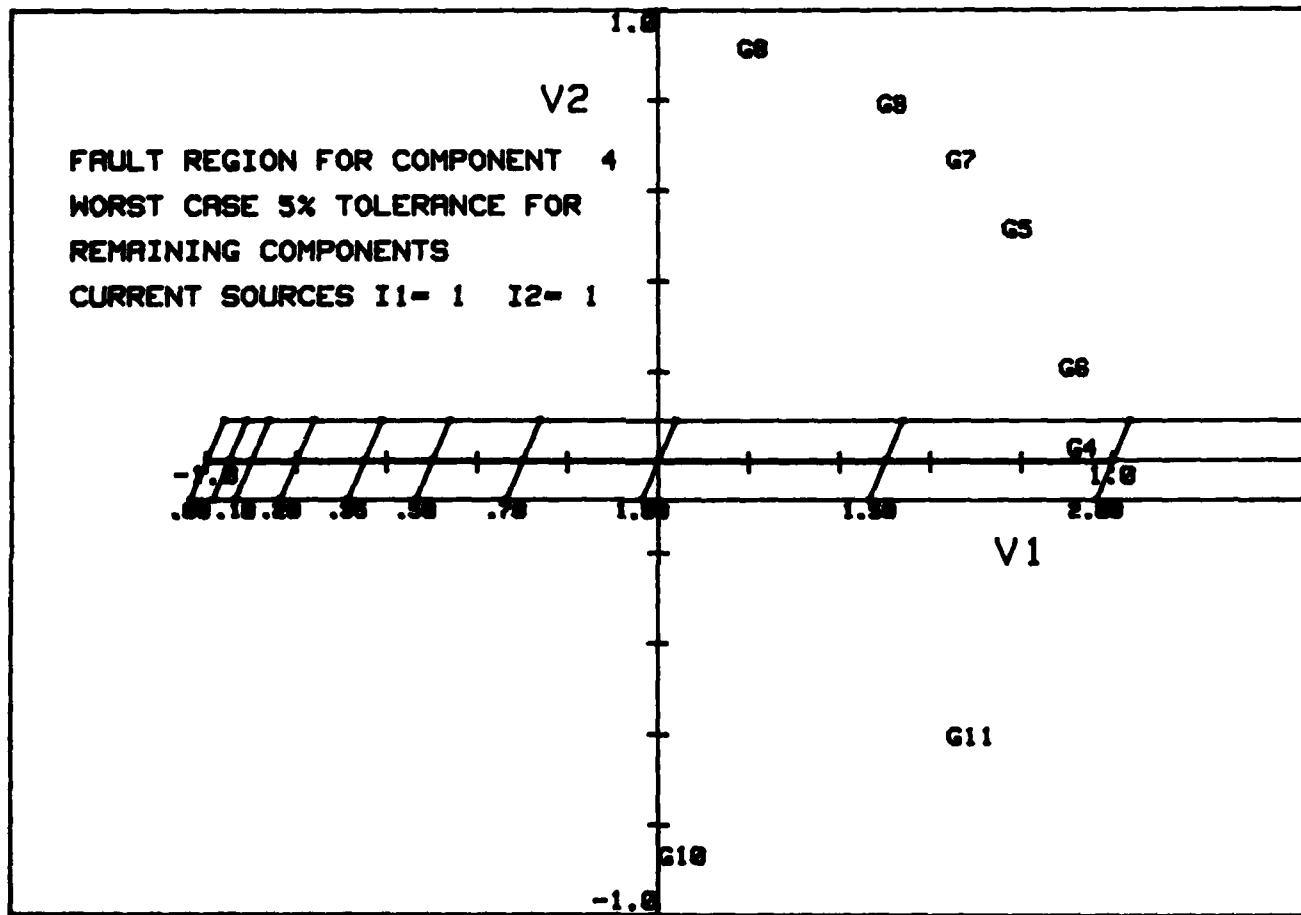


Figure A-1. Component 4 worst-case fault region (symmetric current sources).

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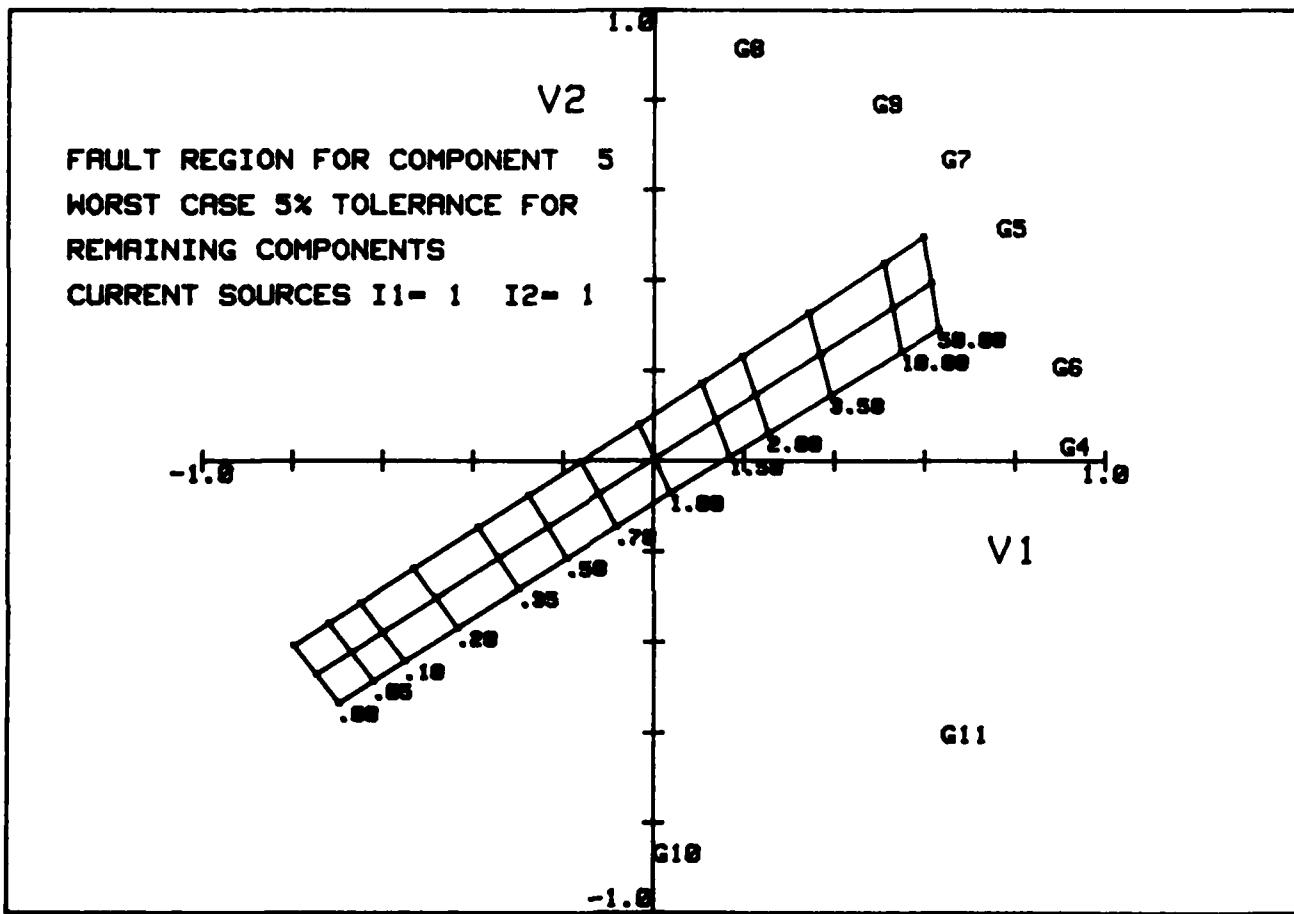


Figure A-2. Component 5 worst-case fault region (symmetric current sources).

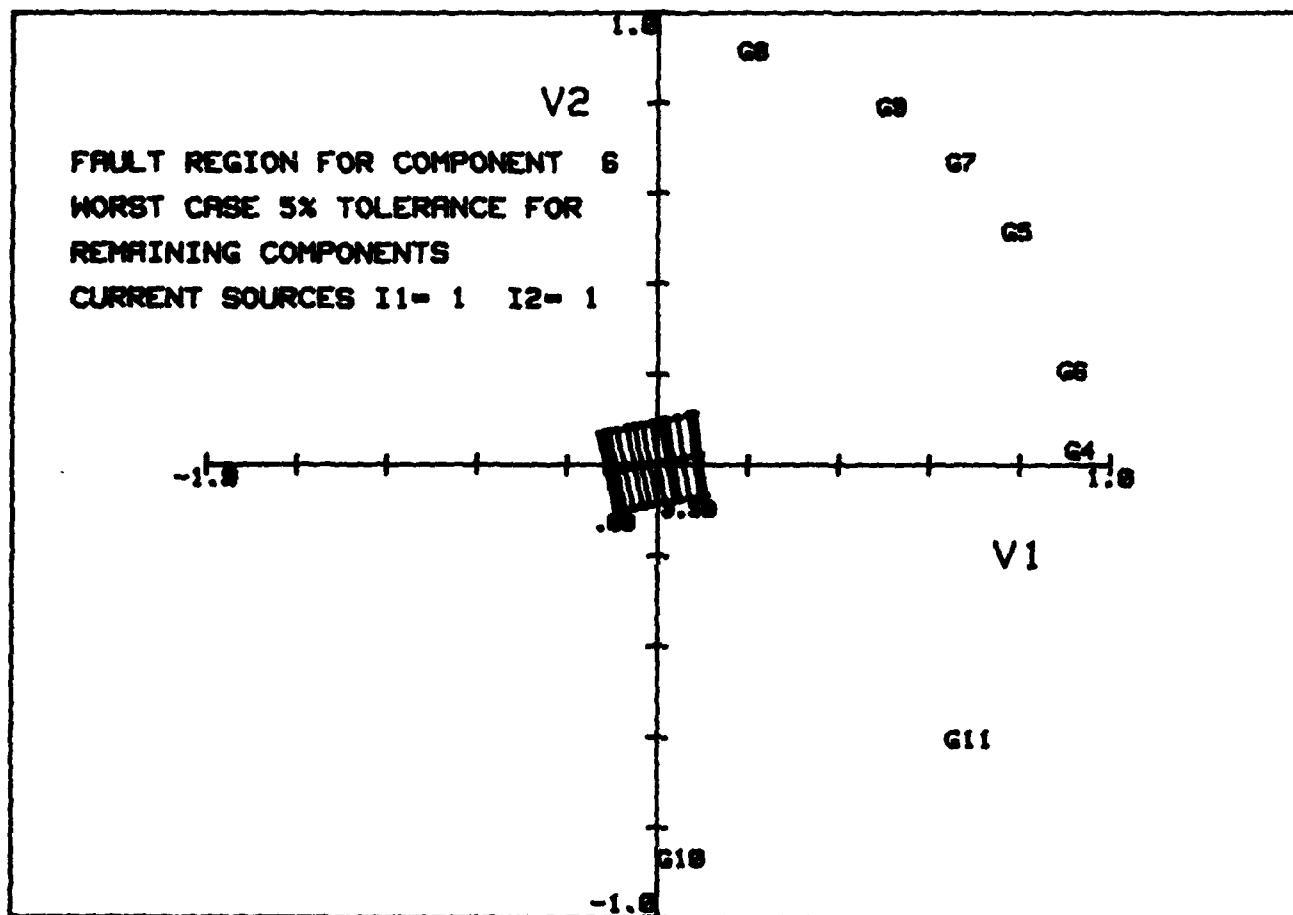


Figure A-3. Component 6 worst-case fault region (symmetric current sources).

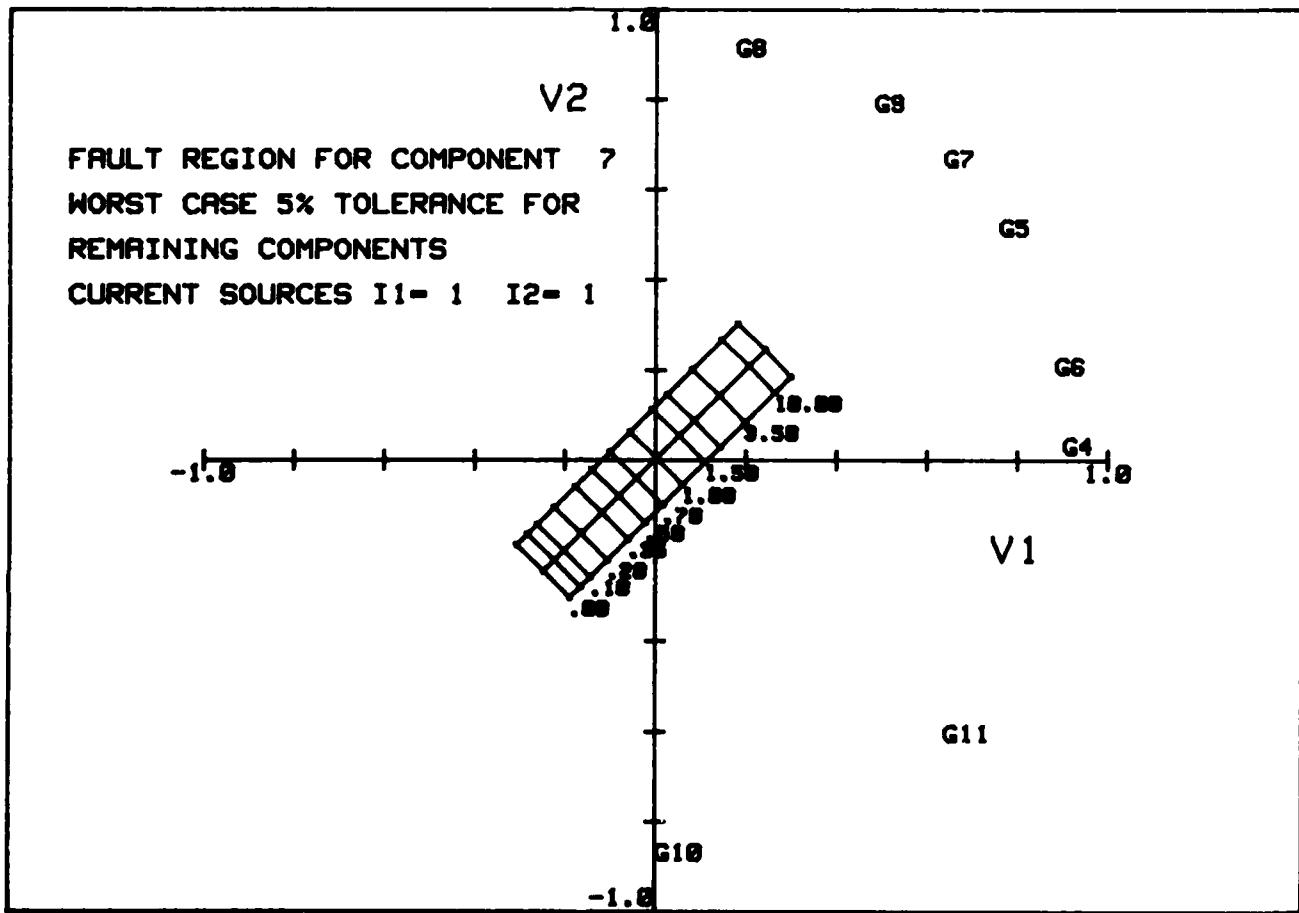


Figure A-4. Component 7 worst-case fault region (symmetric current sources).

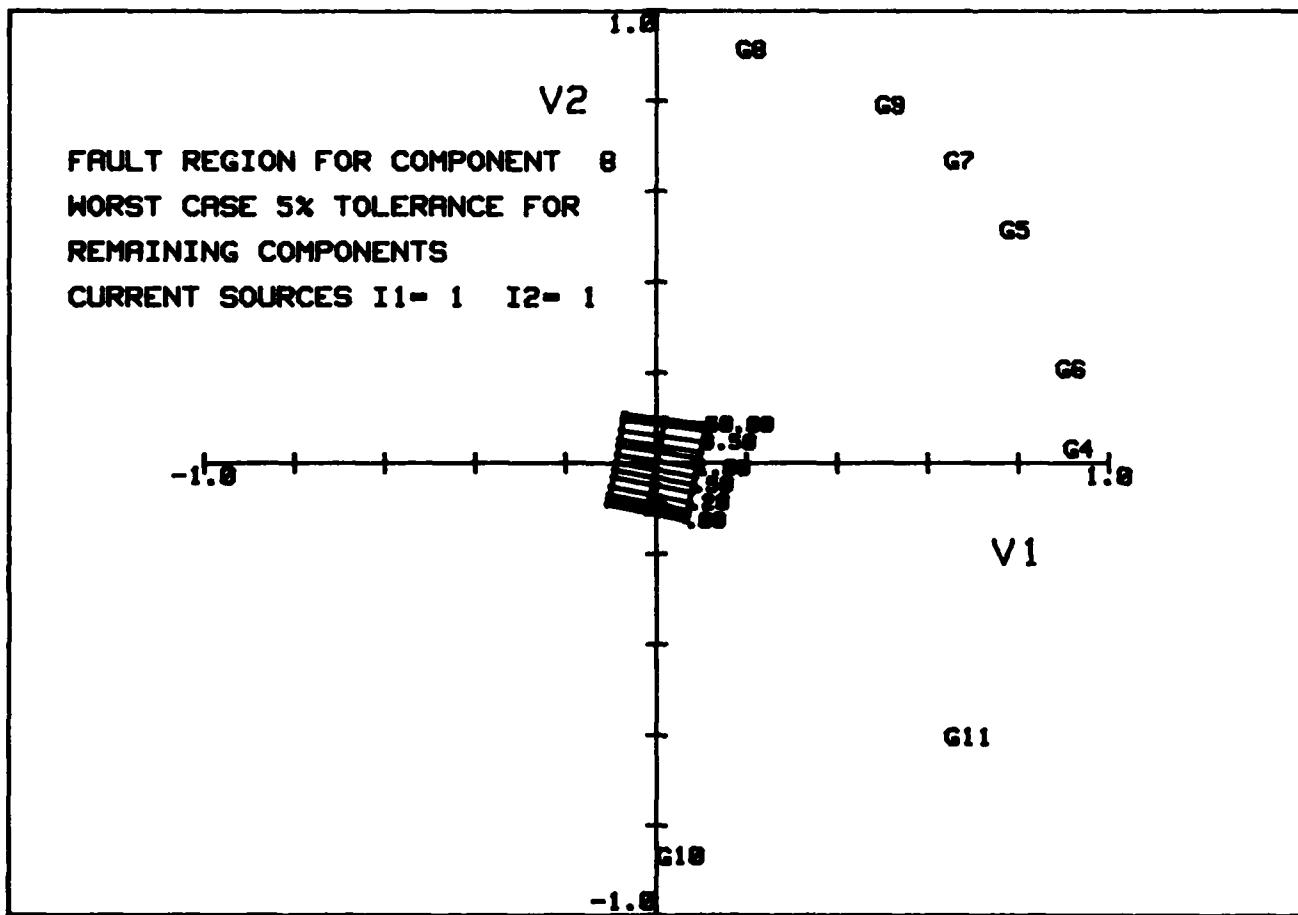


Figure A-5. Component 8 worst-case fault region (symmetric current sources).

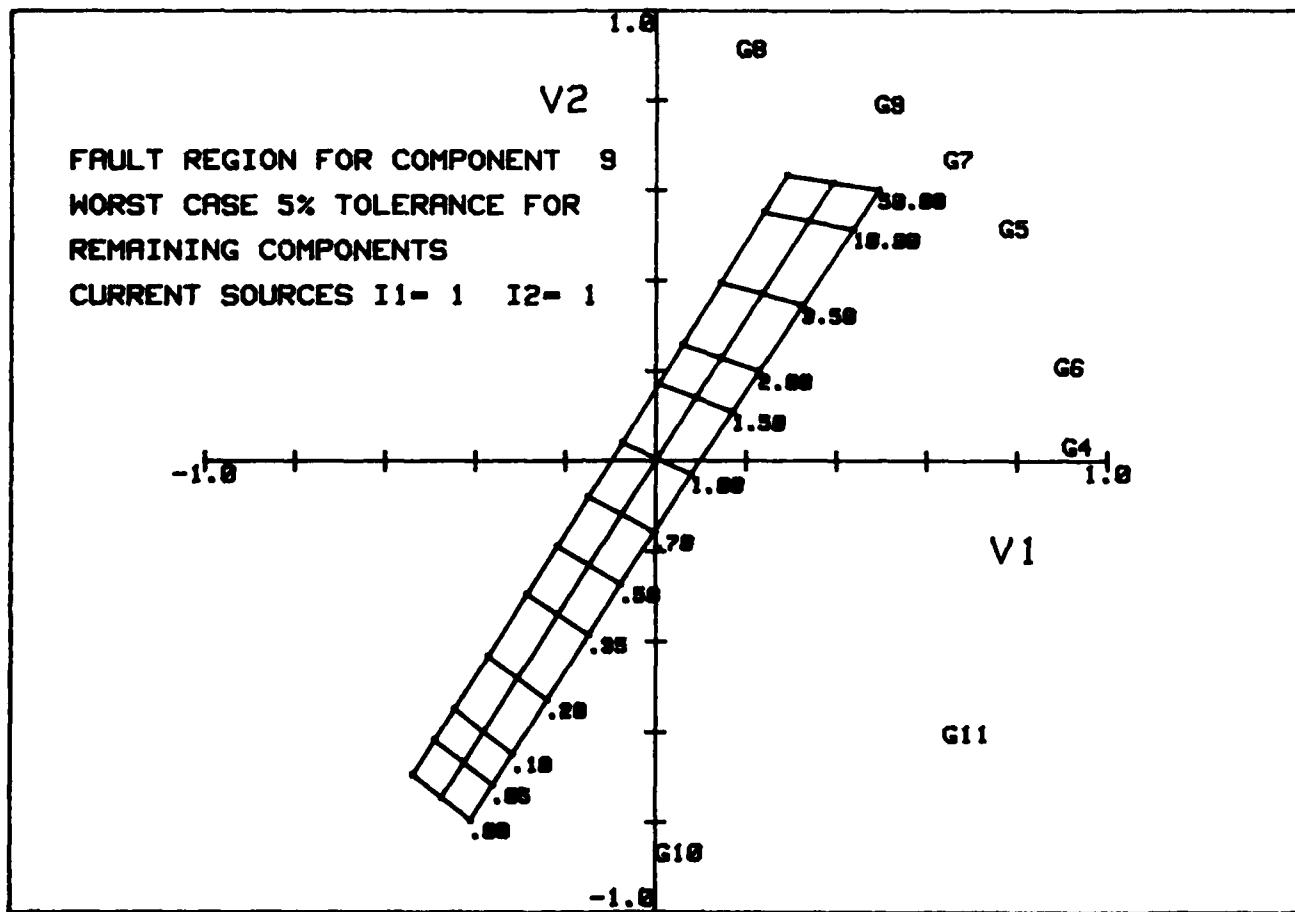


Figure A-6. Component 9 worst-case fault region (symmetric current sources).

FAULT REGION FOR COMPONENT 10
WORST CASE 5% TOLERANCE FOR
REMAINING COMPONENTS
CURRENT SOURCES $I_1 = 1$ $I_2 = 1$

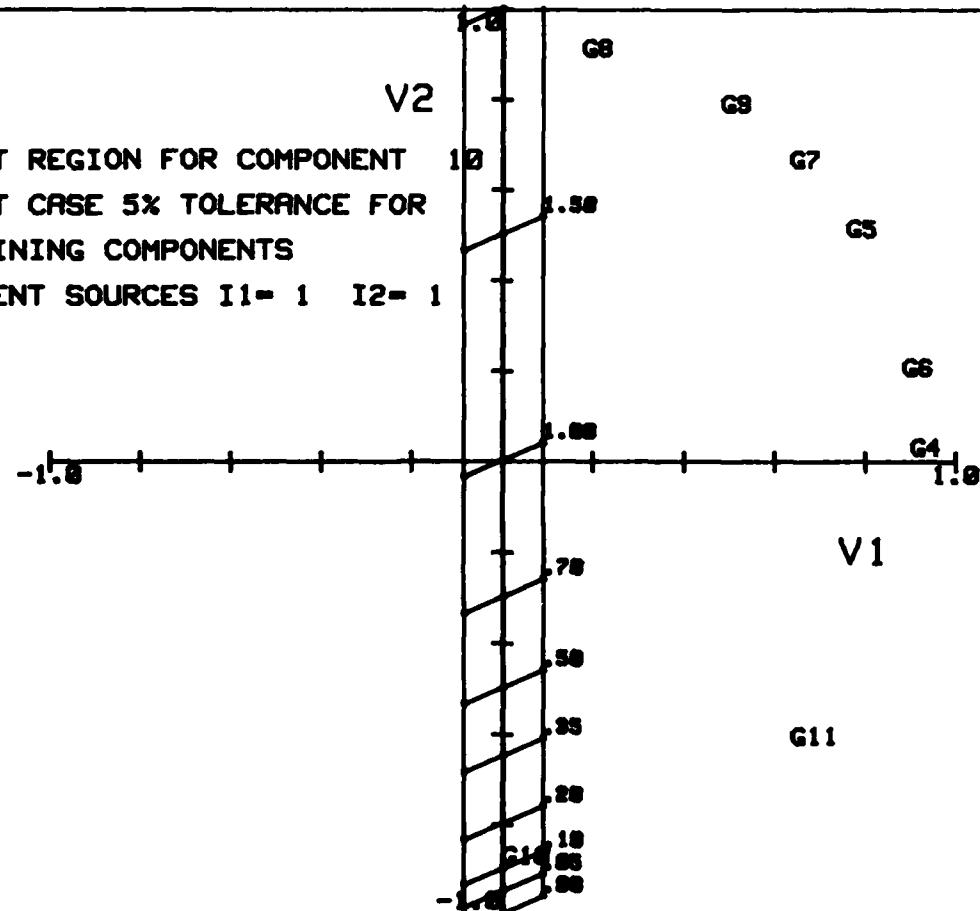


Figure A-7. Component 10 worst-case fault region (symmetric current sources).

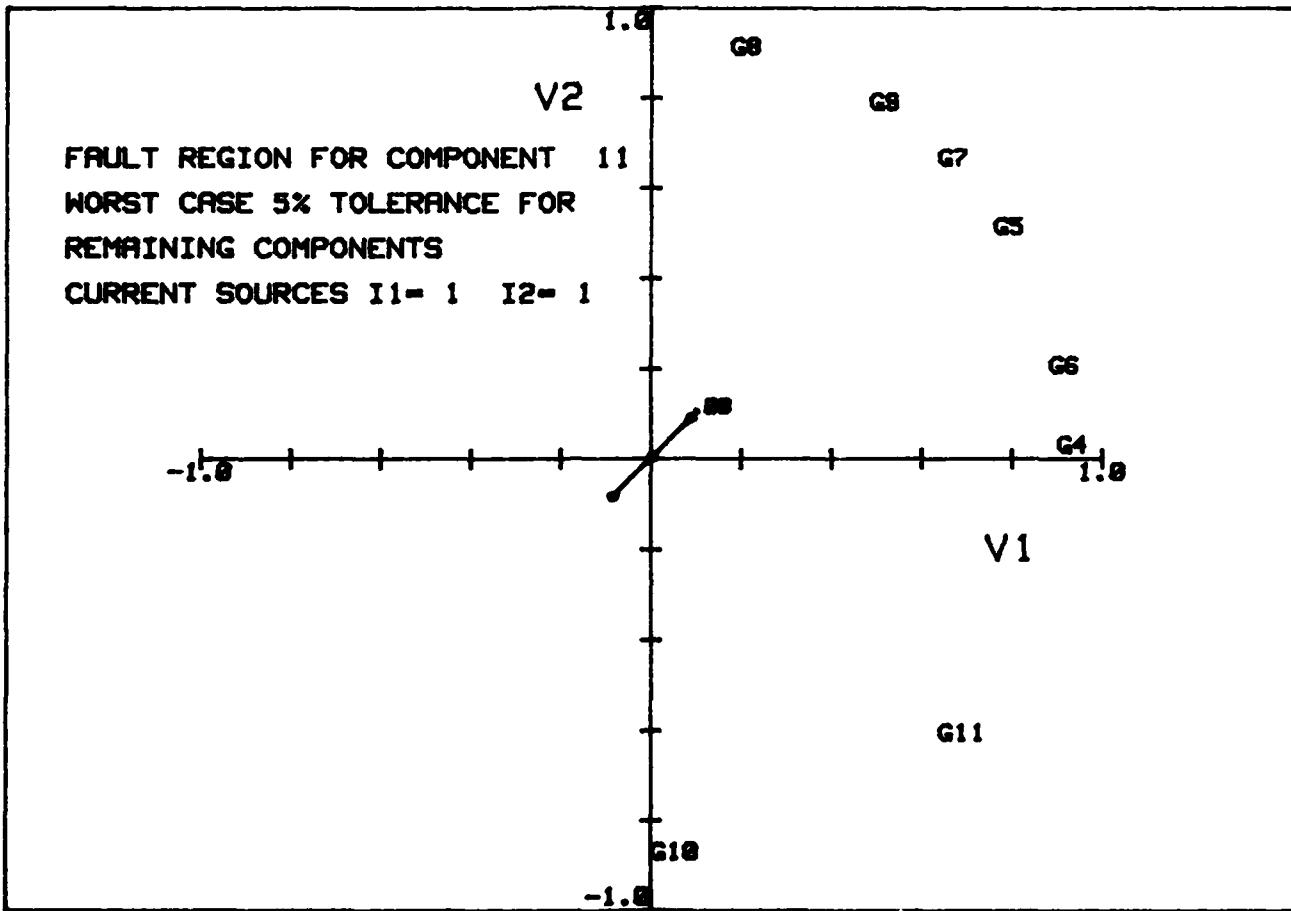


Figure A-8. Component 11 worst-case fault region (symmetric current sources).

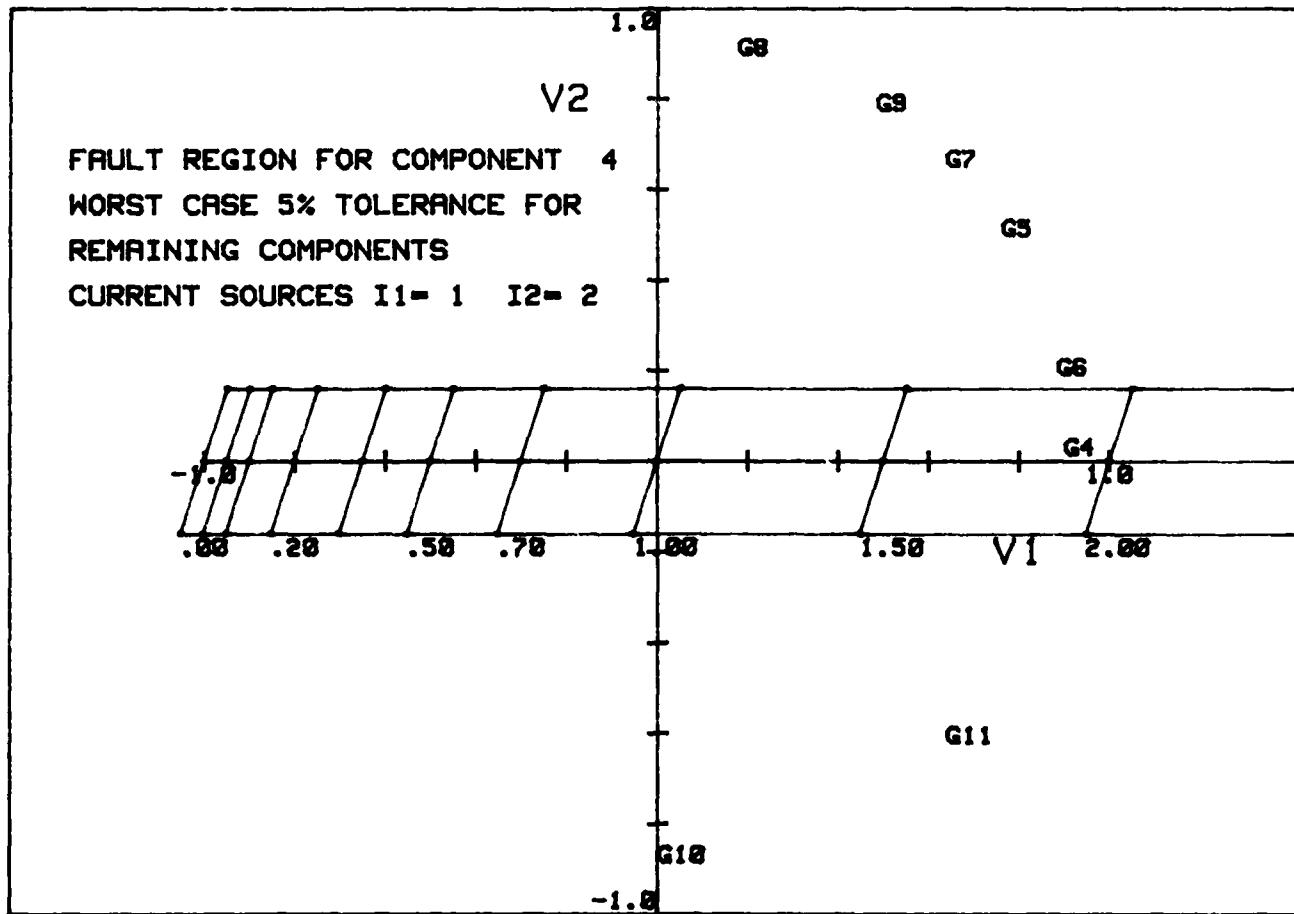


Figure A-9. Component 4 worst-case fault region (symmetric current sources).

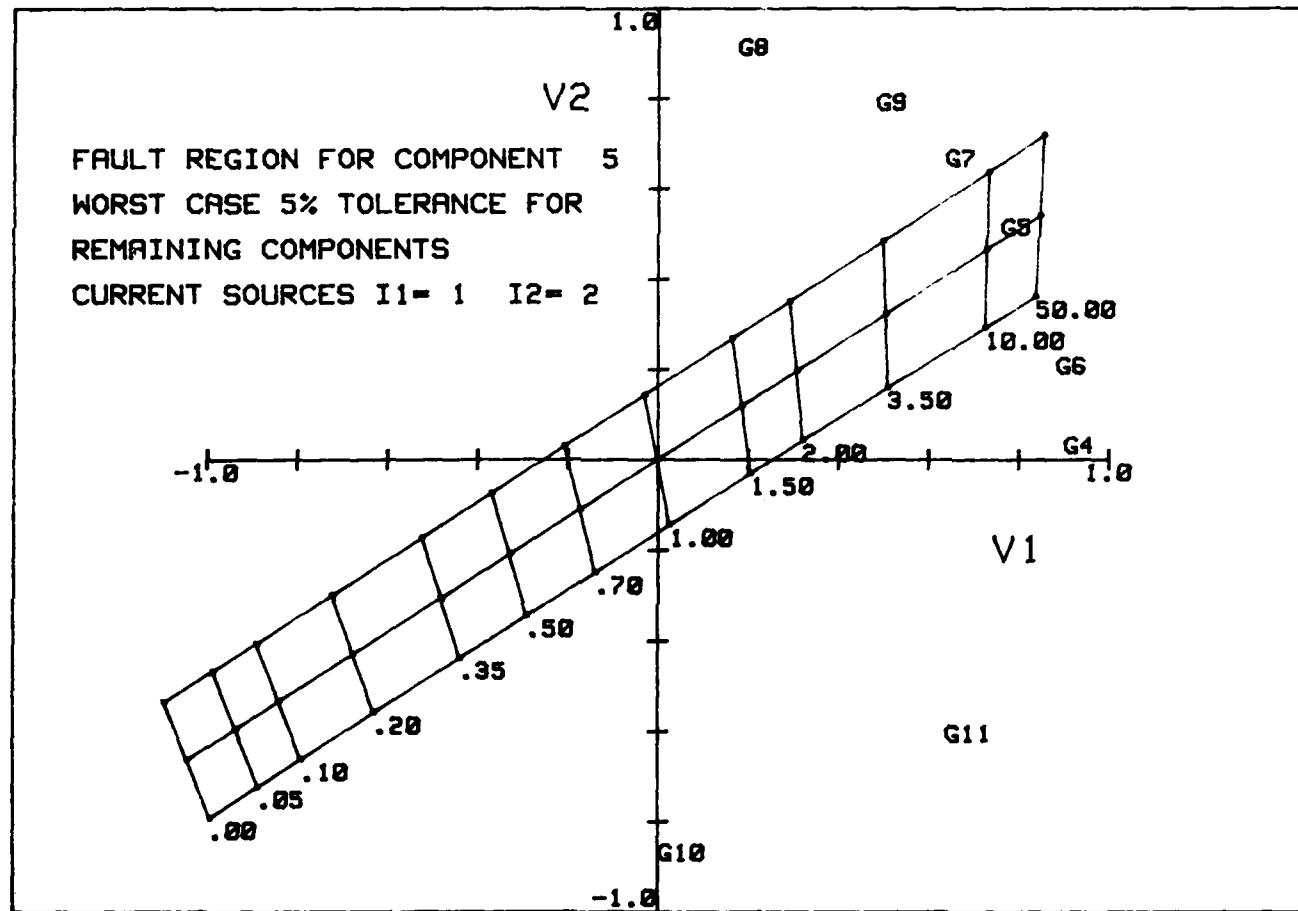


Figure A-10. Component 5 worst-case fault region (asymmetric current sources).

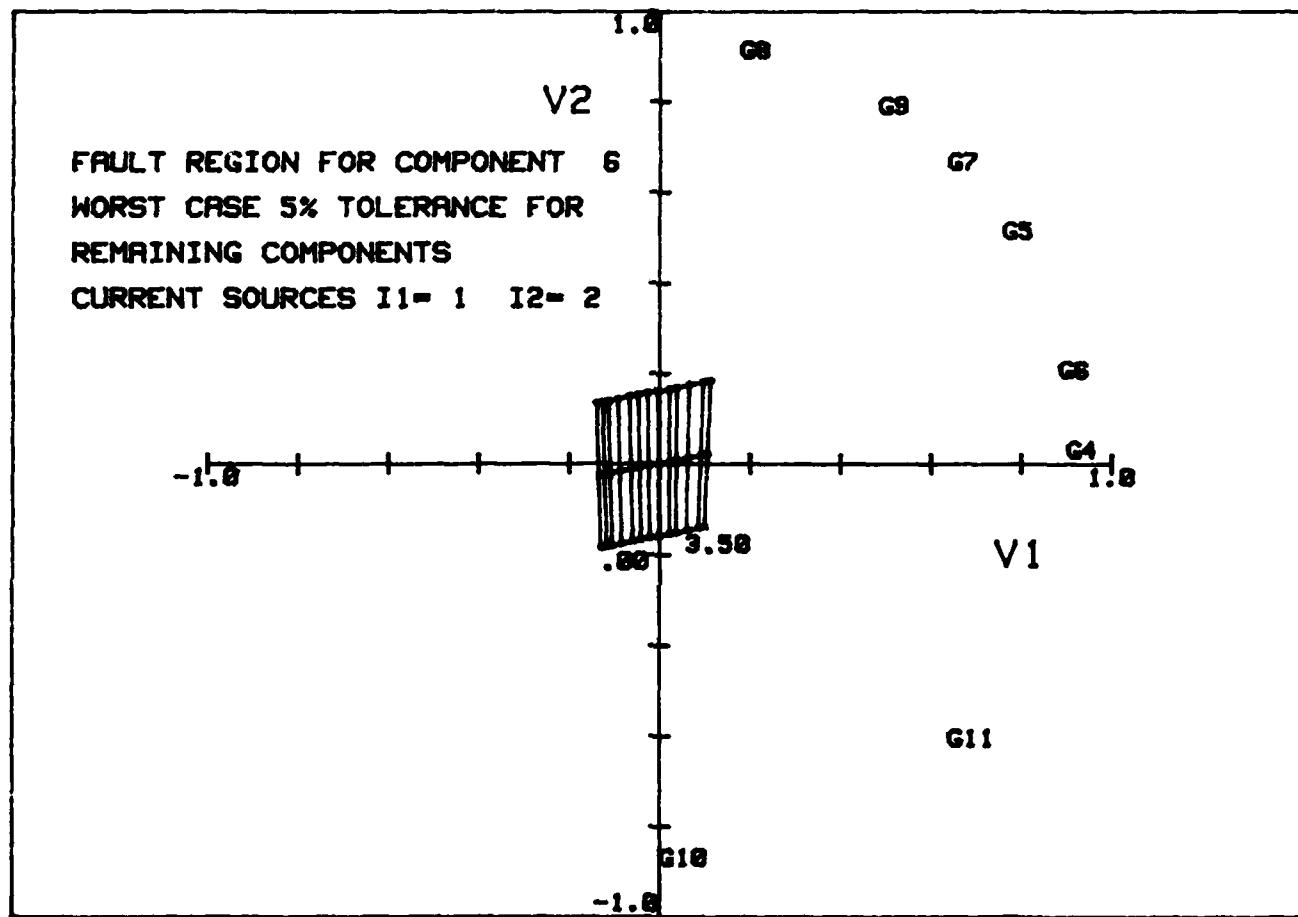


Figure A-11. Component 6 worst-case fault region (asymmetric current sources).

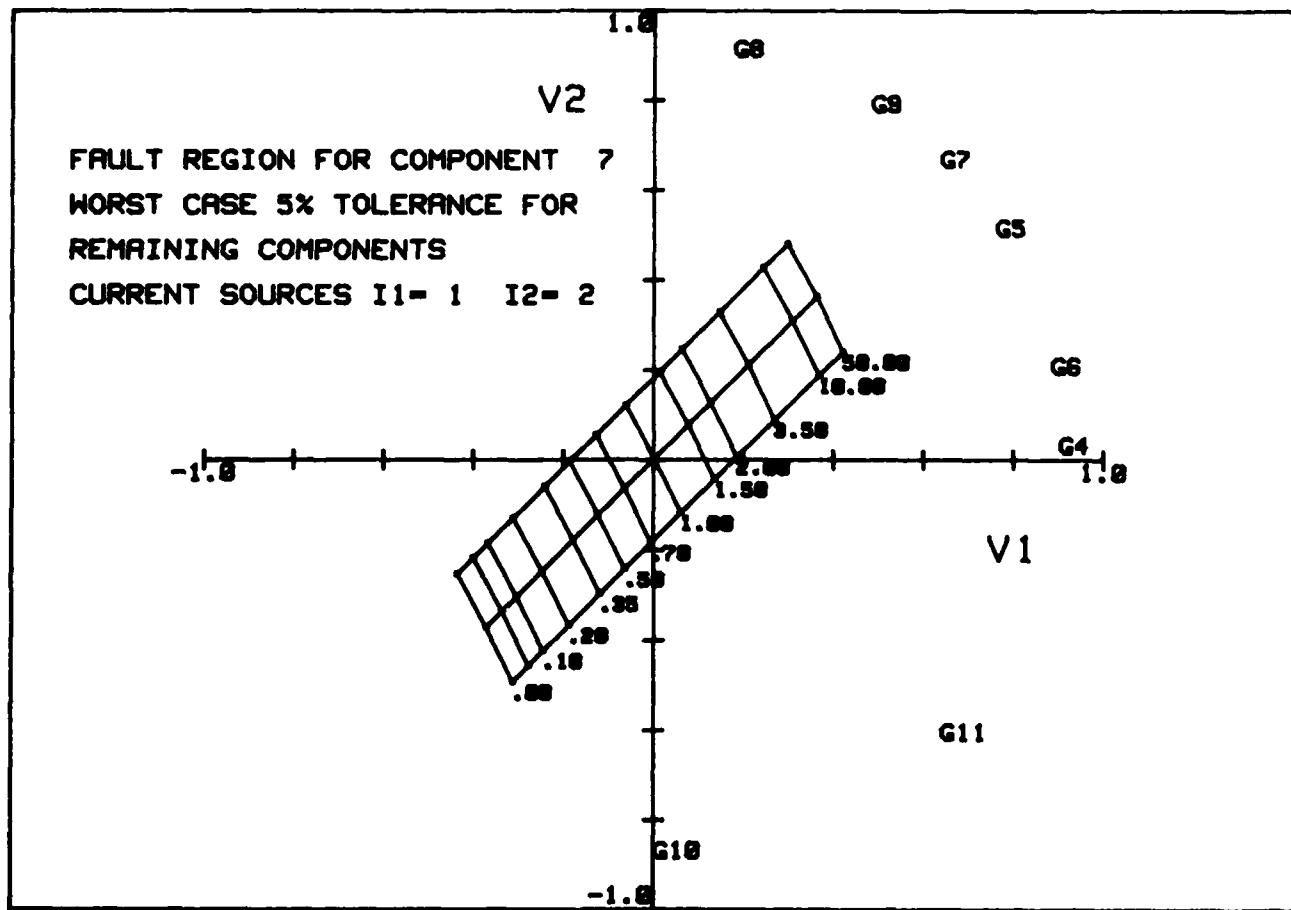


Figure A-12. Component 7 worst-case fault region (asymmetric current sources).

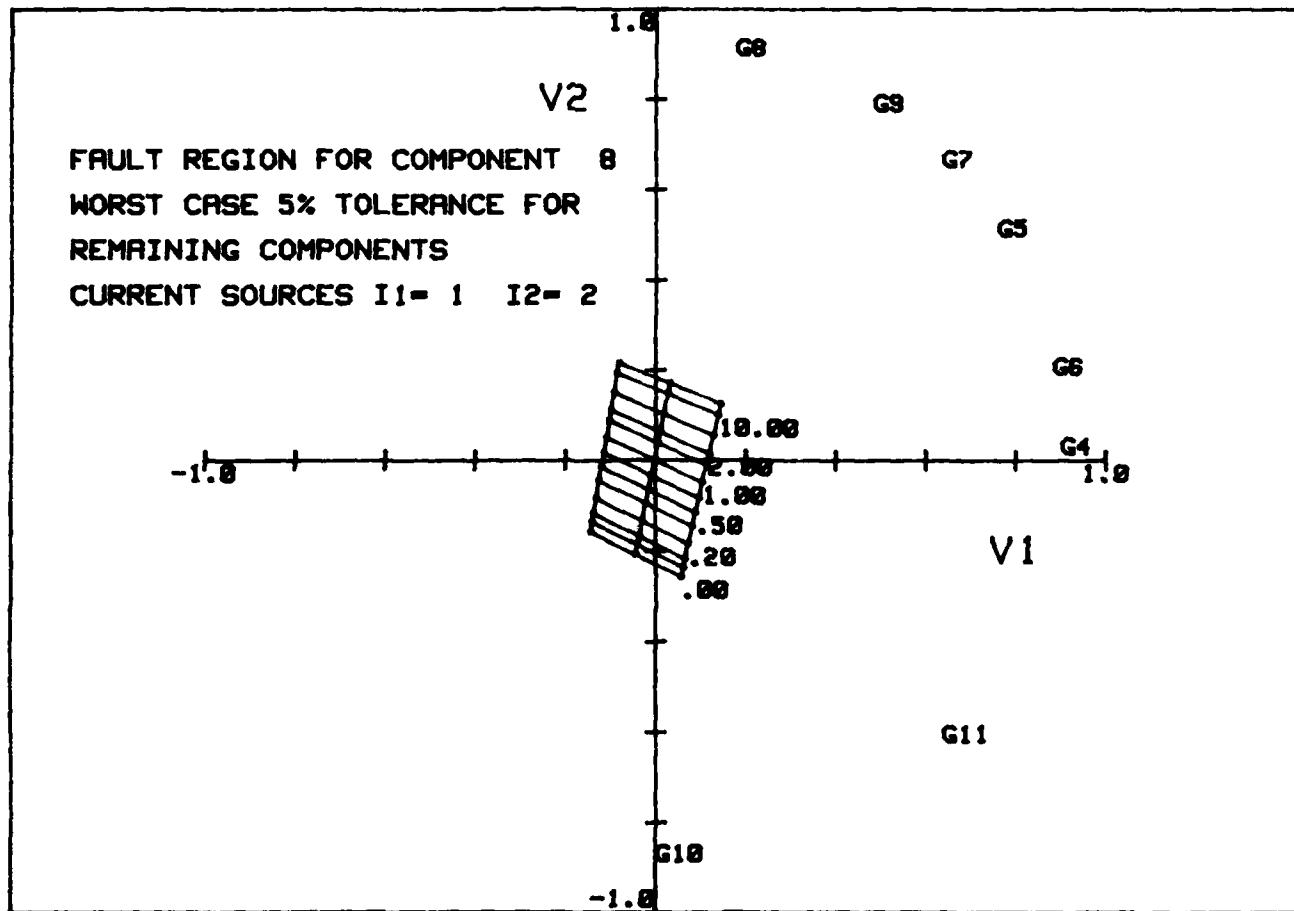


Figure A-13. Component 8 worst-case fault region (asymmetric current sources).

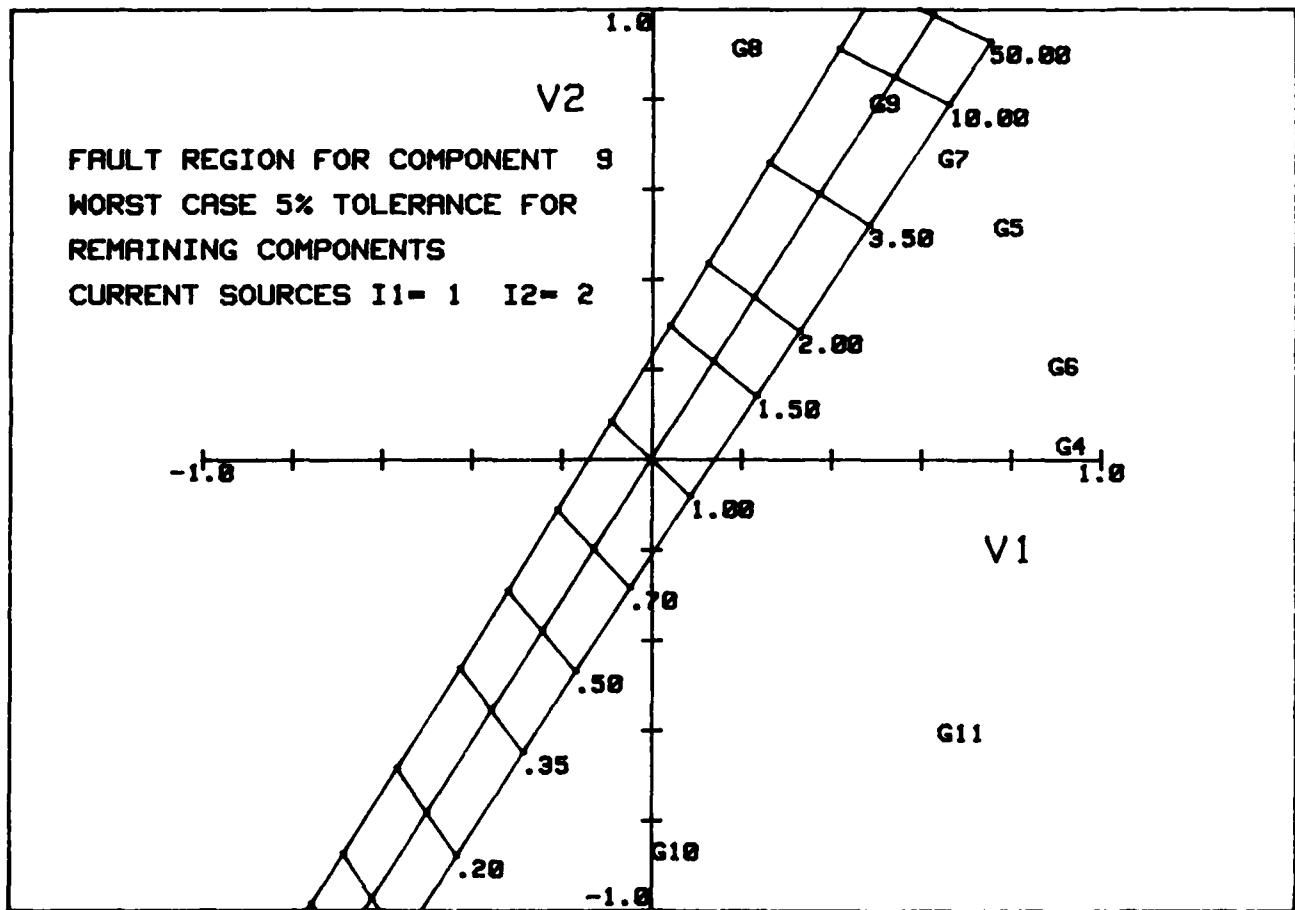


Figure A-14. Component 9 worst-case fault region (asymmetric current sources).

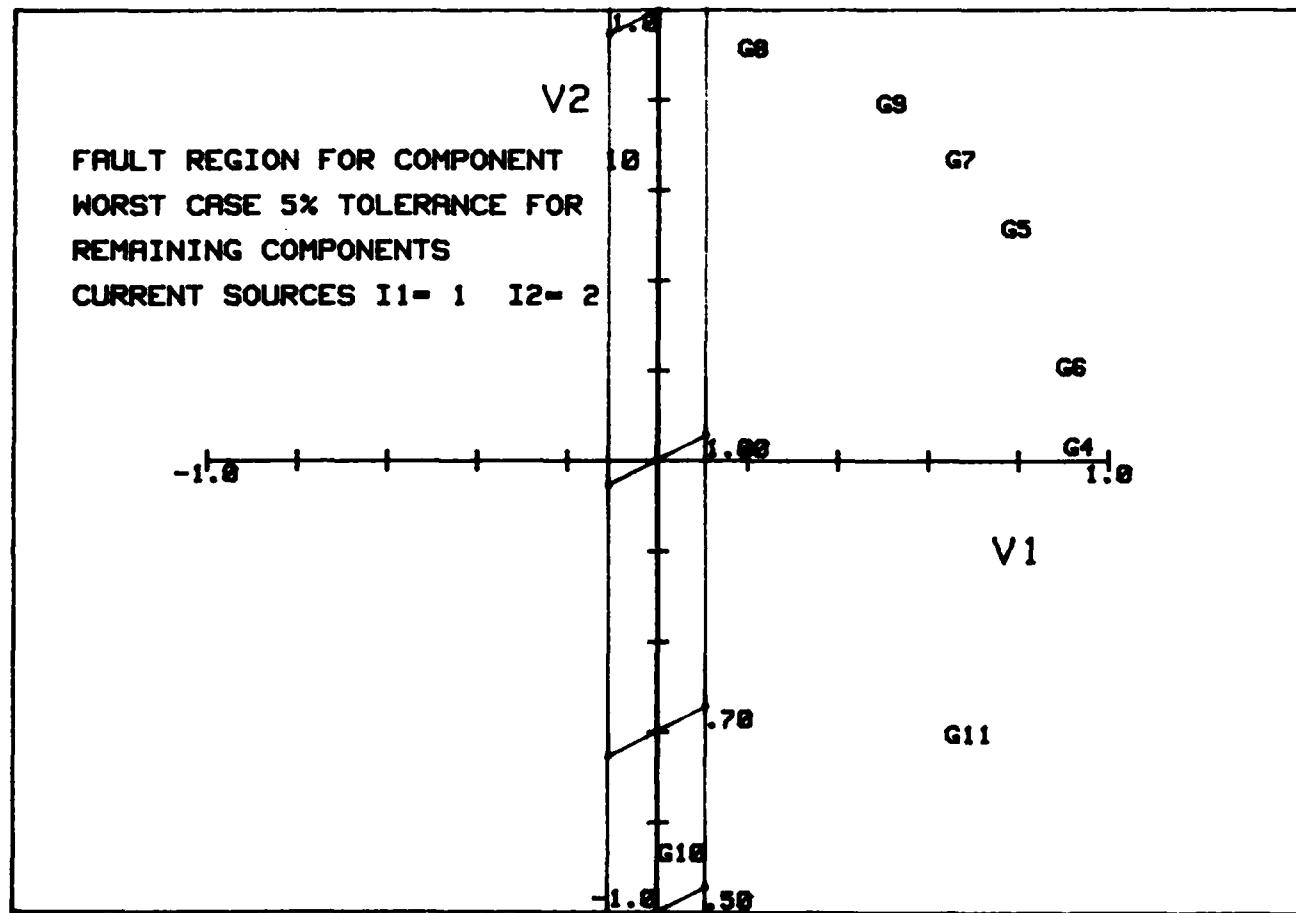


Figure A-15. Component 10 worst-case fault region (asymmetric current sources).

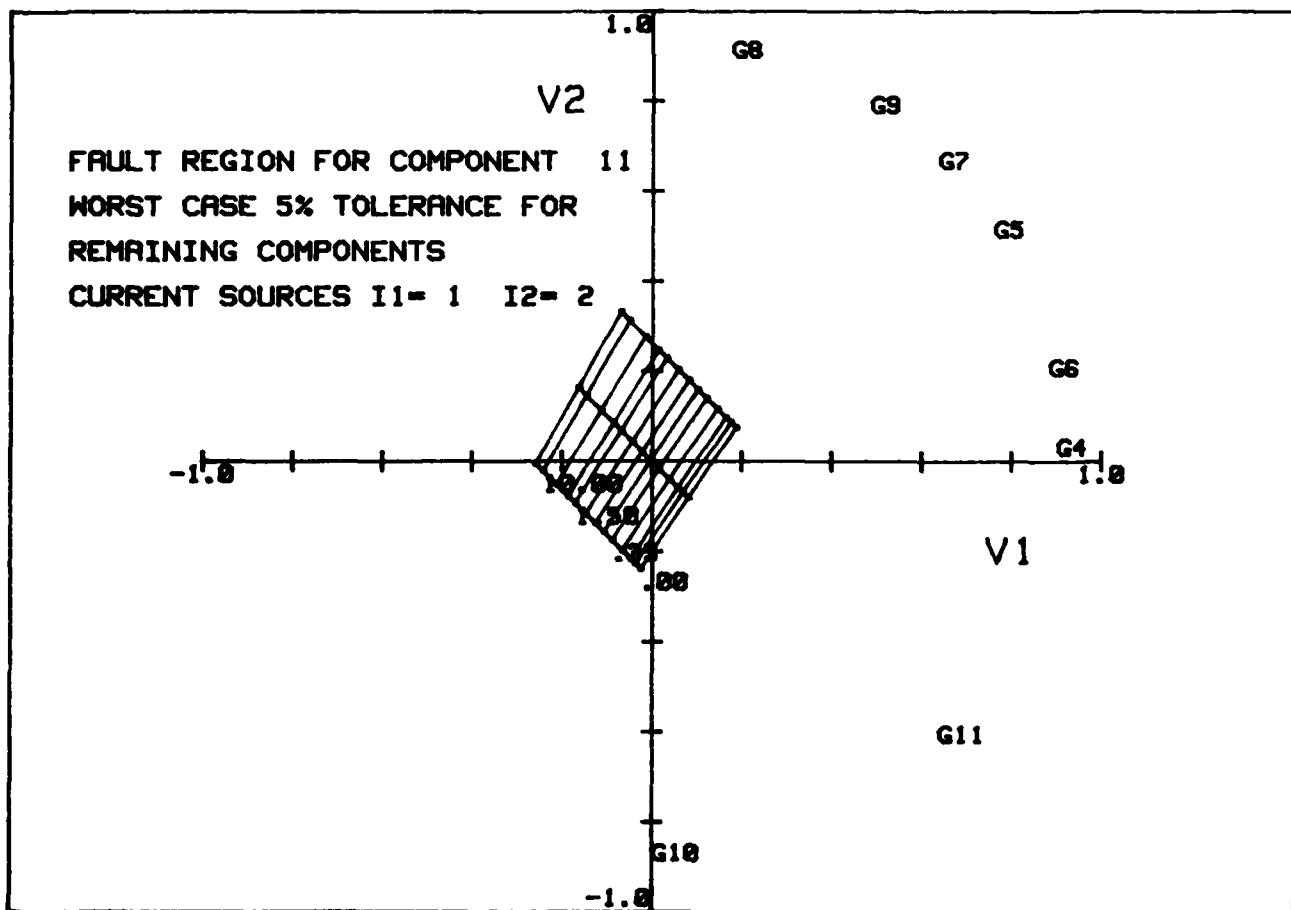


Figure A-16. Component 11 worst-case fault region (asymmetric current sources).

APPENDIX B
COMPUTER HARDWARE DESCRIPTION

APPENDIX B
COMPUTER HARDWARE DESCRIPTION

HP 9826 PROCESSOR

The HP 9826 Computer System is a high-performance instrument controller with built-in display and mass storage. It is a desktop system with a 178 mm diagonal CRT (cathode ray tube) display and 5.25-inch, 264 K-byte flexible mini disk drive.

The system is based on the 16-bit 68000 state-of-the-art microprocessor chip. The clock rate is 8 MHz. The 68000 has 32-bit internal architecture and 16-bit external architecture. There are 65 K-bytes of high-speed RAM (random access memory) in this configuration of the HP 9826.

The keyboard has 10 (20 with shift) user-defined softkeys, an HP-IB interface, a real-time clock, a programmable beeper, and a 400 x 300 pixel graphics display system. An unusual feature of the HP 9826 is the "knob" which provides the user with an input device for editing or inputting data which has an analog feel about it.

HP 9826 ENHANCED BASIC 2.0 LANGUAGE SYSTEM

The BASIC 2.0 language adds to the inherent simplicity of BASIC the computational power found in FORTRAN, ALGOL, and APL. High-performance I/O intensive constructs give this enhanced BASIC the highest performance found in interactive instrument control systems. This enhanced BASIC language is quite user friendly and provides immediate user feedback on a line-by-line basis. Erroneous syntax is detected and reported as each line is entered. Erroneous lines may not even be entered into a program, as they are caught at once. Variable names may be up to 15 characters, which is useful for self-documenting programs. Statements are numbered but may also carry a descriptive statement label. This too is useful for self-documentation of enhanced BASIC programs. Local subroutines and function subprograms may be included. This is a very powerful enhancement.

Additional enhancements include structured programming constructs, labelled COM (common) statements, and extensive debug and trace tools. Programs may be single-stepped or traced with a line-by-line log of line numbers and variable changes while the program is running.

HP 2671G THERMAL PRINTER

The Hewlett-Packard HP 2671G is a companion printer to the HP 9826 desktop computer. Characters or graphics are formed with a printhead containing 15 thin-film resistors arranged in a vertical column. Characters are formed on a high-resolution 18 x 15 dot matrix. Raster graphics resolution is 90 dots per inch both vertically and horizontally. Up to 720 dots are available across the page. A throughput of 16,200 dots/second is made possible by microcomputer control and buffering of the print mechanism.

An 8-bit HP-IB parallel interface is the link to the HP 9826 computer. The microcomputer accepts and buffers characters, commands, and graphics data over this interface. Handshake lines are used for intercept and acknowledgement of data transfers.

The HP 2671G has many printing modes and features. The normal print mode is 10 characters/inch (80 columns per line), which is printed at 120 characters/second. In the expanded mode there are 5 characters/inch (40 columns per line). In the compressed mode characters may be printed at 16.2 characters/inch (132 columns per line). Print enhancements include underlining, framing, and triple-pass bolding. Combinations of these print styles can even be intermixed on a single line. In the character mode, printing is bidirectional for greater speed. Character sets are available in foreign languages. Page formatting features include margins, tabs, and vertical page formatting. Graphics may be made directly from the HP 9826 graphics screen and may be autocentered, windowed, offsetted, and expanded.

HP 9872B PLOTTER

The HP 9872B plotter is a four-pen microprocessor-controlled flat bed plotter designed to create professional quality graphics for business and industry. It is driven by the HP 9826 processor with BASIC commands through an HP-IB interface. The graphics commands sent on the interface are in the Hewlett-Packard Graphics Language (HP-GL) which offers easy-to-remember mnemonic instructions. The BASIC commands are at a high level and actually generate the HP-GL instructions for the user.

Under program control the HP 9872B plotter can fetch any of its four pens and return the pens to their holders. This can also be done under manual control. Programmable pen velocity control is also featured. The extraordinary quality of graphics is a result of precise pen control movement through the use of sophisticated electronic circuitry. The addressable resolution of 0.25 mm (0.001 inch) and the precise repeatability of the HP 9872B insure superb quality plots on both paper and transparency film media up to 297 x 420 mm (11 x 17 inches). Pen selection and capping are fully under program control, allowing multicolor plotting. The plotter is user friendly and convenient.

APPENDIX C
PROGRAM LISTINGS

```

10  ! WORST CASE ANALYSIS PROGRAM
20  ! DC_WORST
30
40
50  ! THIS PROGRAM PRODUCES 5% WORST CASE PLOTS
60  ! AND PERFORMS THE CIRCUIT SOLUTIONS
70  ! AND WORST CASE ANALYSIS NEEDED FOR THESE
80  ! PLOTS
90
100
110
120  ! THE DATA STATEMENTS FOR ORIGIN_LOW,
130  ! ORIGIN_HIGH, ANGLE_LOW, AND ANGLE_HIGH
140  ! ARE RE-CALCULATED AND OVERWRITTEN
150  ! BY THE PROGRAM.
160
170  ! THESE DATA STATEMENTS WERE USED IN
180  ! PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT AND HAVE BEEN
190  ! RETAINED FOR INFORMATIONAL PURPOSES.
200
210
220  DIM Origin_low(4:11,1:2) ! ORIGIN SHIFT
230  ! FOR -5% COMPONENT TOLERANCE
240  !
250  DATA -.0500, .0000, -.0177, -.0112
260  DATA -.0027, -.0005, -.0064, -.0064
270  DATA -.0005, -.0027, -.0112, -.0177
280  DATA .0000, -.0500, .0000, .0000
290  !
300  READ Origin_low(*)
310  !
320  DIM Origin_high(4:11,1:2) ! ORIGIN SHIFT FOR +5% COMPONE
NT TOLERANCE
330  !
340  DATA .0500, .0000, .0167, .0106,
350  DATA .0025, .0005, .0061, .0061,
360  DATA .0005, .0025, .0106, .0167,
370  DATA .0000, .0500, .0000, .0000
380  !
390  READ Origin_high(*)
400  !
410  DIM Angle_low(4:11,4:11) ! VECTOR ANGLE FOR -5%
TOLERANCE ON COMPONENTS
420  !
430  DATA 00.00, 32.47, 11.31, 45.00, 78.69, 57.53, -90.00, -45
.00 ! R4
440  DATA 00.00, 32.47, 10.70, 45.25, 78.92, 57.9, -90.00, -46
.11 ! R5
450  DATA 00.00, 32.56, 11.31, 44.76, 79.49, 57.56, -90.00, -45
.37 ! R6

```

```

460  DATA 00.00, 32.37, 11.98, 45.00, 78.02, 57.63,-90.00,-45
.00 ! R7
470  DATA 00.00, 32.44, 10.51, 45.24, 78.69, 57.44,-90.00,-44
.63 ! R8
480  DATA 00.00, 32.10, 11.08, 44.75, 79.27, 57.53,-90.00,-43
.89 ! R9
490  DATA 00.00, 32.47, 11.31, 45.00, 78.69, 57.53,-90.00,-45
.00 ! R10
500  DATA 00.00, 32.88, 12.22, 45.00, 77.78, 57.12,-90.00,-45
.00 ! R11
510 !
520  READ Angle_low(*)
530 !
540  DIM Angle_high(4:11,4:11) ! VECTOR ANGLE FOR +5% COMPON
ENT TOLERANCE
550 !
560  DATA 00.00, 32.47, 11.31, 45.00, 78.69, 57.53,-90.00,-45
.00 ! R4
570  DATA 00.00, 32.47, 11.83, 44.77, 78.48, 57.19,-90.00,-43
.96 ! R5
580  DATA 00.00, 32.39, 11.31, 45.23, 77.94, 57.50,-90.00,-44
.65 ! R6
590  DATA 00.00, 32.57, 10.65, 45.00, 79.35, 57.43,-90.00,-45
.00 ! R7
600  DATA 00.00, 32.50, 12.06, 44.77, 78.69, 57.61,-90.00,-45
.35 ! R8
610  DATA 00.00, 32.81, 11.52, 45.23, 78.17, 57.53,-90.00,-46
.04 ! R9
620  DATA 00.00, 32.47, 11.31, 45.00, 78.69, 57.53,-90.00,-45
.00 ! R10
630  DATA 00.00, 32.07, 10.45, 45.00, 79.55, 57.93,-90.00,-45
.00 ! R11
640 !
650  READ Angle_high(*)
660 !
670  DIM Angle(4:11) ! nominal vector angleS
680  DATA 00.00, 32.47, 11.31, 45.00, 78.69, 57.53,-90.00,-45
.00
690  READ Angle(*)
700 !
710  DIM X(0:255),Y(0:255),Error_ang(0:255)
720  DIM Measure_dist(0:255)
730  DIM Delta_v(1:2,1:10)
740  DIM Xplot(1:16,1:3),Yplot(1:16,1:3)
750 !
760  DIM R_value(1:13)
770  DATA 0.05,.10,.2,.35,.5,.7,1,1.5,2,3.5,10,50
780  READ R_value(*)
790 !
800  DIM R(4:11) ! RESISTOR ARRAY
810 R:  DATA 1,1,1,1,1,1,1,5

```

```

820      READ R(*)
830      !
840      !
850      COM /Worst/ Flag
860      IF Flag=0 THEN LOADSUB ALL FROM "MATMULT"
870      IF Flag=0 THEN LOADSUB ALL FROM "MATINV"
880      IF Flag=0 THEN LOADSUB ALL FROM "ATN"
890      IF Flag=0 THEN LOADSUB ALL FROM "DC_CIRCUIT"
900      IF Flag=0 THEN LOADSUB ALL FROM "DC_PLOT"
910      Flag=1
920      !
930      DEG ! SET DEGREE MODE FOR TRIG FUNCTIONS
940      !
950      RESTORE R
960      READ R(*)
970      I1=1
980      I2=1
990      !
1000     ! DETERMINE NOMINAL ORIGIN AND NOMINAL VECTOR ANGLES
1010     !
1020     CALL Dc_circuit(I1,I2,R(*),V1,V2,Delta_v(*))
1030     Origin(1)=V1
1040     Origin(2)=V2
1050     FOR Component=4 TO 11
1060       Angle(Component)=FNAtn(Delta_v(1,Component-3),Delta_
v(2,Component-3))
1070     NEXT Component
1080     !
1090     ! CALCULATE ORIGIN SHIFT AND VECTOR ANGLE
1100     ! FOR +5% AND -5% COMPONENT TOLERANCE
1110     ! CHANGING ONE COMPONENT AT A TIME
1120     !
1130     ! THIS CUSTOM CALCULATION REQUIRES 100 SECONDS ON THE HP
9826
1140     !
1150     FOR Component=4 TO 11
1160       RESTORE R
1170       READ R(*)
1180       R(Component)=.95*R(Component) ! -5% COMPONENT TOLERANCE
1190       CALL Dc_circuit(I1,I2,R(*),V1,V2,Delta_v(*))
1200       FOR Comp=4 TO 11
1210         Angle_low(Component,Comp)=FNAtn(Delta_v(1,Comp-
3),Delta_v(2,Comp-3))
1220       NEXT Comp
1230       Origin_low(Component,1)=V1-Origin(1)
1240       Origin_low(Component,2)=V2-Origin(2)
1250       RESTORE R
1260       READ R(*)
1270       R(Component)=1.05*R(Component) ! +5% COMPONENT TOLERANCE

```

```

1280      CALL Dc_circuit(I1,I2,R(*),V1,V2,Delta_v(*))
1290      FOR Comp=4 TO 11
1300          Angle_high(Component,Comp)=FNAtn(Delta_v(1,Com
p-3),Delta_v(2,Comp-3))
1310          NEXT Comp
1320          Origin_high(Component,1)=V1-Origin(1)
1330          Origin_high(Component,2)=V2-Origin(2)
1340      NEXT Component
1350      !
1360      !
1370      !
1380      FOR Worst=8 TO 8
1390      BEEP
1400      WAIT 1.0
1410      BEEP
1420      OUTPUT 1;"POSITION PLOTTER PAPER - PRESS 'CONTINUE' WHEN
READY"
1430      PAUSE
1440      CALL Dc_plot(Angle(*))
1450      CSIZE 3.5
1460      LORG 3
1470      MOVE -65,35
1480      LABEL "FAULT REGION FOR COMPONENT ";Worst
1490      MOVE -65,30
1500      LABEL "WORST CASE 5% TOLERANCE FOR"
1510      MOVE -65,25
1520      LABEL "REMAINING COMPONENTS"
1530      MOVE -65,20
1540      LABEL "CURRENT SOURCES I1=";I1;" I2=";I2
1550      PENUP
1560      PEN 0
1570      Slope=1.E+10 ! VERTICAL VECTOR CASE
1580      IF ABS(ABS(Angle(Worst))-90)>1.0E-4 THEN Slope=TAN(Angle
(Worst))
1590      !
1600          Nres=13
1610      FOR Res=1 TO Nres ! NRES=NUMBER OF FAULTY RESISTORS
1620      !
1630      RESTORE R
1640      READ R(*)
1650      R(Worst)=R_value(Res)
1660      CALL Dc_circuit(I1,I2,R(*),V1,V2,Delta_v(*))
1670      V1=V1-Origin(1) ! DELTA VOLTAGE
1680      V2=V2-Origin(2) ! DELTA VOLTAGE
1690      Xplot(Res,2)=V1
1700      Yplot(Res,2)=V2
1710      PIVOT 0
1720          FOR Combo=0 TO 255 ! ALL COMBINATIONS OF COMPONENT
+ OR - 5% TOLERANCE
1730          X(Combo)=0
1740          Y(Combo)=0

```

```

1750      Error_ang(Combo)=0
1760      FOR I=0 TO 7
1770      Component=I+4
1780      IF Component=Worst THEN Skip
1790      IF BIT(Combo,I)=0 THEN
1800          X(Combo)=X(Combo)+Origin_low(Component,1)
1810          Y(Combo)=Y(Combo)+Origin_low(Component,2)
1820          Error_ang(Combo)=Error_ang(Combo)+Angle_low(Comp
onent,Worst)-Angle(Worst)
1830      ELSE
1840          X(Combo)=X(Combo)+Origin_high(Component,1)
1850          Y(Combo)=Y(Combo)+Origin_high(Component,2)
1860          Error_ang(Combo)=Error_ang(Combo)+Angle_high(Com
ponent,Worst)-Angle(Worst)
1870      END IF
1880 Skip:   NEXT I
1890      !
1900      ! ROTATE AND TRANSLATE V1 AND V2 BY
1910      ! ERROR ANGLE AND ORIGIN SHIFT
1920      !
1930      X(Combo)=X(Combo)+V1*COS(Error_ang(Combo))-V2*SIN(Er
ror_ang(Combo))
1940      Y(Combo)=Y(Combo)+V1*SIN(Error_ang(Combo))+V2*COS(Er
ror_ang(Combo))
1950      Measure_dist(Combo)=(+Slope*X(Combo)-Y(Combo))/SQR(S
lope*Slope+1)
1960      !
1970      !
1980      NEXT Combo
1990      !
2000      ! FIND MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM
2010      !
2020      Max=-1.E+10
2030      Min=+1.E+10
2040      !
2050      FOR I=0 TO 255
2060      IF Measure_dist(I)>Max THEN
2070          Max=Measure_dist(I)
2080          Imax=I
2090      END IF
2100      IF Measure_dist(I)<Min THEN
2110          Min=Measure_dist(I)
2120          Imin=I
2130      END IF
2140      NEXT I
2150      !
2160      ! SOLVE EXACT CASE
2170      Pattern=0
2180      FOR I=0 TO 7
2190      Pattern=10*Pattern+BIT(Imin,7-I)
2200      IF I+4=Worst THEN Skip2

```

```

2210      IF BIT(Imin,I)=0 THEN R(I+4)=R(I+4)*.95
2220      IF BIT(Imin,I)=1 THEN R(I+4)=R(I+4)*1.05
2230 Skip2:    NEXT I
2240          CALL Dc_circuit(I1,I2,R(*),V1,V2,Delta_v(*))
2250          X(Imin)=V1-Origin(1)
2260          Y(Imin)=V2-Origin(2)
2270          RESTORE R
2280          READ R(*)
2290          R(Worst)=R_value(Res)
2300          Pattern=0
2310      FOR I=0 TO 7
2320      Pattern=10*Pattern+BIT(Imax,7-I)
2330      IF I+4=Worst THEN Skip3
2340      IF BIT(Imax,I)=0 THEN R(I+4)=R(I+4)*.95
2350      IF BIT(Imax,I)=1 THEN R(I+4)=R(I+4)*1.05
2360 Skip3:    NEXT I
2370          CALL Dc_circuit(I1,I2,R(*),V1,V2,Delta_v(*))
2380          X(Imax)=V1-Origin(1)
2390          Y(Imax)=V2-Origin(2)
2400          Xplot(Res,1)=X(Imin)
2410          Yplot(Res,1)=Y(Imin)
2420          Xplot(Res,3)=X(Imax)
2430          Yplot(Res,3)=Y(Imax)
2440 NEXT Res
2450      ! PLOT THE NOMINAL VECTOR AND
2460      ! MIN AND MAX TOLERANCE WORST CASE
2470      ! LINES
2480      LORG 5
2490      PEN 2
2500      FOR I=1 TO 3
2510          MOVE 50*Xplot(1,I)+.25,50*(Yplot(1,I))+.75
2520          LABEL "."
2530          FOR Res=2 TO Nres
2540          MOVE 50*Xplot(Res-1,I),50*Yplot(Res-1,I)
2550          DRAW 50*Xplot(Res,I),50*Yplot(Res,I)
2560          MOVE 50*Xplot(Res,I)+.25,50*Yplot(Res,I)+.75
2570          LABEL "."
2580          NEXT Res
2590      NEXT I
2600      ! DRAW LINES FROM MIN TO MAX WORST CASE
2610      !
2620      FOR Res=1 TO Nres
2630      MOVE 50*Xplot(Res,1),50*Yplot(Res,1)
2640      DRAW 50*Xplot(Res,2),50*Yplot(Res,2)
2650      DRAW 50*Xplot(Res,3),50*Yplot(Res,3)
2660      NEXT Res
2670      !
2680      ! LABEL FAULT RESISTOR VALUE ON PLOT
2690      !
2700      CSIZE 2.5

```

```

2710      IF Angle(Worst)>=0 AND Angle(Worst)<14. THEN LORG
6      !CENTERED
2720      IF Angle(Worst)>=14. AND Angle(Worst)<=76. THEN LO
RG 3  !UPPER LEFT
2730      IF Angle(Worst)>76. THEN LORG 2
2740      IF Angle(Worst)<0 AND Angle(Worst)>-14. THEN LORG
4  !BOTTOM CENTERED
2750      IF Angle(Worst)<=-14. THEN LORG 1  !LOWER LEFT
2760      !
2770      I=3  ! I DETERMINES WHICH SIDE OF THE PLOT THAT VA
LUE LABELS ARE PLACED
2780      IF Angle(Worst)<0 AND Angle(Worst)>-89. THEN I=1
2790          MOVE 50*Xplot(1,I),50*Yplot(1,I)
2800          LABEL USING ".DD";R_value(1)
2810          X_last=Xplot(1,I)
2820          Y_last=Yplot(1,I)
2830      FOR Res=2 TO Nres
2840      IF 50*ABS(Xplot(Res,I)-X_last)>1.8*(Digits+2) OR 5
0*ABS(Yplot(Res,I)-Y_last)>1.8 THEN
2850          MOVE 50*Xplot(Res,I),50*Yplot(Res,I)
2860          Digits=0
2870          IF R_value(Res)<1.0 THEN
2880              LABEL USING ".DD";R_value(Res)
2890          ELSE
2900              Digits=1.0+INT(LGT(R_value(Res)))
2910              LABEL USING VAL$(Digits)&"D.DD";R_value(Res)
)
2920          END IF
2930          X_last=Xplot(Res,I)
2940          Y_last=Yplot(Res,I)
2950      END IF
2960      NEXT Res
2970      LDIR 0
2980      PENUP
2990      PEN 0
3000  NEXT Worst  ! NEXT CASE
3010      !
3020  END

```

```

10  SUB Dc_circuit(I1,I2,R(*),V1,V2,Delta_v(*),OPTIONAL Flag
)
20  ! PROGRAM "DC_CIRCUIT"
30  !
40  !
50  ! INPUTS TO THIS SUBROUTINE ARE CURRENT
60  ! SOURCE VALUES I1 AND I2 AND THE RESISTANCE
70  ! ARRAY R(*) FOR THE DC CIRCUIT.
80  !
90  ! OUTPUTS FROM THIS SUBROUTINE ARE PORT
100 ! VOLTAGES V1 AND V2 AND DELTA_V(*) WHICH
110 ! IS THE ARRAY OF VOLTAGE CHANGES INDUCED
120 ! BY THE FAULT CURRENTS
130 !
140 ! THE PRINT FLAG IS AN OPTIONAL FLAG FOR
150 ! PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT PURPOSES.
160 !
170 DIM Q(1:10,1:10),B(1:10,1:10)
180 DIM Asave(1:10,1:10),Identity(1:10,1:10)
190 DIM Tolerance(1:3),Angle(1:3,4:11)
200 !
210 !
220 IF NPAR<7 THEN Print_flag=0
230 IF NPAR=7 THEN Print_flag=Flag ! SET OPTIONAL PRINT FLAG
PARAMETER
240 !
250 !
260 RESTORE
270 !
280 !
290 !
300 DATA 1,-1,-1,0,0,0,0,-1,0,0
310 DATA 0,0,1,-1,-1,0,0,0,0,0
320 DATA 0,0,0,0,1,-1,-1,1,0,0
330 DATA 1,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0
340 DATA 0,0,0,0,0,0,1,0,0,0
350 DATA 0,-1,1,1,0,0,0,0,0,0
360 DATA 0,0,0,-1,1,1,0,0,0,0
370 DATA 0,0,-1,0,-1,0,0,.5,0,0
380 DATA 1,1,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,-1,0
390 DATA 0,0,0,0,0,-1,1,0,0,1
400 N=10
410 FOR I=1 TO N
420 FOR J=1 TO N
430 READ Q(I,J)
440 NEXT J
450 NEXT I
460 ! RESISTANCES
470 !
480 Q(9,1)=R(4)
490 Q(6,2)=-R(5)

```

```

500    Q(9,2)=R(5)
510    Q(6,3)=R(6)
520    Q(8,3)=-R(6)
530    Q(6,4)=R(7)
540    Q(7,4)=-R(7)
550    Q(7,5)=R(8)
560    Q(8,5)=-R(8)
570    Q(7,6)=R(9)
580    Q(10,6)=-R(9)
590    Q(10,7)=R(10)
600    Q(8,8)=R(11)
610    !
620    !
630    IF Print_flag=1 THEN PRINT "Q MATRIX -- CONNECTION AND
COMPONENTS"
640    IF Print_flag=1 THEN PRINT
650    FOR I=1 TO N
660    IF Print_flag=1 THEN PRINT
670    FOR J=1 TO N
680    Asave(I,J)=Q(I,J)
690    IF Print_flag=1 THEN PRINT USING "3D.DD, #";Q(I,J)
700    NEXT J
710    IF Print_flag=1 THEN PRINT
720    NEXT I
730    !
740    ! REPLACE MATRIX VALUES BY TRUE RESISTANCES
750    !
760    CALL Matinv(N,Q(*),B(*),Det)
770    ! DC CIRCUIT CASE
780    !
790    ! DEFINE F MATRIX
800    DIM F(1:10,1:10)
810    !
820    DATA 1,-1,-1,0,0,0,0,-1,0,0
830    DATA 0,0,1,-1,-1,0,0,0,0,0
840    DATA 0,0,0,0,1,-1,-1,1,0,0
850    DATA 1,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,1,0
860    DATA 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,1,0,0,-1
870    DATA 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0
880    DATA 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0
890    DATA 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0
900    DATA 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0
910    DATA 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0
920    !
930    FOR I=1 TO N
940    FOR J=1 TO N
950    READ F(I,J)
960    NEXT J
970    NEXT I
980    !
990    CALL Matmult(B(*),F(*),Q(*),N,N,N)

```

```

1000 !
1010 DIM M(1:2,1:10)
1020 DATA 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0
1030 DATA 0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0
1040 !
1050 FOR I=1 TO 2
1060 FOR J=1 TO N
1070 READ M(I,J)
1080 NEXT J
1090 NEXT I
1100 !
1110 M(1,1)=R(4)
1120 M(1,2)=R(5)
1130 M(2,6)=R(9)
1140 M(2,7)=-R(10)
1150 !
1160 CALL Matmult(M(*),Q(*),Delta_v(*),2,10,10)
1170 V1=I1*Delta_v(1,9)+I2*Delta_v(1,10)
1180 V2=I1*Delta_v(2,9)+I2*Delta_v(2,10)
1190 IF Print_flag=1 THEN
1200 PRINT
1210 PRINT "DELTA V VECTOR"
1220 PRINT
1230 FOR I=1 TO 2
1240 PRINT
1250 PRINT
1260 FOR J=1 TO N
1270 PRINT USING " 4D.D.XX,#";24*Delta_v(I,J)
1280 NEXT J
1290 NEXT I
1300 !
1310 PRINT
1320 PRINT "FAULT PATTERN ANGLES"
1330 FOR J=1 TO N-2
1340 PRINT USING """G""",DD,XX,""ANGLE="",DDDD.DDD";J+3,FNAtn(
Delta_v(1,J),Delta_v(2,J))
1350 NEXT J
1360 !
1370 PRINT "V1=";V1,"V2=";V2
1380 END IF
1390 !
1400 !
1410 !
1420 !
1430 !
1440 !
1450 SUBEND

```

```

10  SUB Dc_plot(Angle(*),OPTIONAL Vm)
20  ! LIN-LIU FAULT VECTOR PLOT
30  !
40  ! GENERATES THE BACKGROUND
50  ! INFORMATION FOR THE PLOTS
60  !
70  GINIT
80  GRAPHICS ON
90 !!!PLOTTER IS 705,"HPGL"
100 Vmax=1.0
110 IF NPAR=2 THEN Vmax=Vm ! OPTIONAL SCALE FOR MAX VALUE
OF VOLTAGE
120 PEN 1
130 PENUP
140 FRAME
150 CSIZE 5
160 LORG 5
170 SHOW -50,50,-50,50
180 MOVE -10,40
190 LABEL "V2"
200 MOVE 40,-10
210 LABEL "V1"
220 DEG
230     MOVE -50,0
240     DRAW 50,0
250     MOVE 0,-50
260     DRAW 0,50
270     CLIP -50,50,-50,50
280     AXES 10,10
290     CLIP OFF
300     CSIZE 3
310     LORG 6 ! LABEL X AXIS
320     MOVE -50,0
330     LABEL USING "DD.D";-Vmax
340     MOVE 50,0
350     LABEL USING "DD.D";+Vmax
360     LORG 7 ! LABEL Y AXIS
370     MOVE 0,-50
380     LABEL USING "DD.D";-Vmax
390     LORG 9
400     MOVE 0,50
410     LABEL USING "DD.D";+Vmax
420     LORG 1
430 FOR J=4 TO 11
440     MOVE 45*COS(Angle(J)),45*SIN(Angle(J))
450     IF J>9 THEN LABEL USING """G",DD";J
460     IF J<10 THEN LABEL USING """G",D";J
470     NEXT J
480 SUBEND

```

```
10  DEF FNAtn(X,Y)
20  ! TWO QUADRANT ARCTANGENT FUNCTION
30  !
40  DEG
50  IF ABS(X)<1.E-4 THEN RETURN -90
60  RETURN ATN(Y/X)
70  !
80 ! KEEP THIS LINE FOR 4-QUADRANT VERSION  IF X<0 THEN RETURN
N SGN(Y)*180+ATN(Y/X)
90 ! KEEP FOR 4-QUAD      IF X>0 THEN RETURN ATN(Y/X)
100 FNEND
```

```
10  SUB Matmult(A(*),B(*),C(*),N,K,M)
20  !
30  ! SUBROUTINE TO MULTIPLY TWO MATRICES
40  !
50  ! DIMENSIONS ARE N X K  AND K X M
60  !
70  !     FOR N_index=1 TO N
80  !       FOR M_index=1 TO M
90  !         C(N_index,M_index)=0
100 !         NEXT M_index
110 !       NEXT N_index
120 !
130 !
140 !     FOR N_index=1 TO N
150 !       FOR M_index=1 TO M
160 !         FOR K_index=1 TO K
170 !           C(N_index,M_index)=C(N_index,M_index)+A(N_
index,K_index)*B(K_index,M_index)
180 !           NEXT K_index
190 !         NEXT M_index
200 !       NEXT N_index
210 !
220 SUBEND
```

```

10  SUB MatInv(N,A(*),B(*),Det)
20  !
30  !    INVERTS A REAL N X N MATRIX A AND
40  !    STORES THE RESULT IN B
50  !
60  !    INTEGER I,J
70  !    DIM P(1:10)
80  !
90  !
100 Det=FNFactor(N,A(*),P(*))
110 !
120 IF ABS(Det)<1.E-20 THEN
130 !    BOMB CITY !
140 PRINT "DETERMINANT LESS THAN 1E-20 ** NON-INVERTABLE
MATRIX"
150 PRINT "VALUE OF DETERMINANT=",Det
160 RETURN
170 END IF
180 !    SET UP AUGMENTATION MATRIX B
190 !
200 FOR I=1 TO N
210     FOR J=1 TO N
220         B(I,J)=0.
230         IF I=J THEN B(I,J)=1.0
240         NEXT J
250     NEXT I
260 !
270 !
280 CALL Lu(A(*),P(*),N,B(*),N)
290 !
300 SUBEND
310 !
320 !
330 !
340 !    DEFINE FACTOR FUNCTION
350 !
360 DEF FNFactor(N,A(*),P(*))
370 !
380 !    INTEGER I,J,K,K1,N1,Pk,Ppi
390 !
400 FOR I=1 TO N
410     P(I)=I
420     NEXT I
430 !
440 N1=N-1
450 Delta=1.0
460 !
470 FOR K=1 TO N1
480     Pk=P(K)
490     Max=ABS(A(Pk,K))
500     FOR I=K TO N

```

```

510      Ppi=P(I)
520      IF ABS(A(Ppi,K))<Max THEN
530      ELSE
540      Max=ABS(A(Ppi,K))
550      Pk=I
560      Delta==Delta
570      END IF
580      NEXT I
590      !
600      IF Max>0 THEN
610      ELSE
620      RETURN 0
630      !
640      END IF
650      !
660      Ppi=P(K)
670      P(K)=P(Pk)
680      P(Pk)=Ppi
690      K1=K+1
700      FOR I=K1 TO N
710      Ppi=P(I)
720      A(Ppi,K)=A(Ppi,K)/A(P(K),K)
730      FOR J=K1 TO N
740      A(Ppi,J)=A(Ppi,J)-A(Ppi,K)*A(P(K),J)
750      NEXT J
760      NEXT I
770      Delta=Delta*A(P(K),K)
780      NEXT K
790      !
800      RETURN Delta*A(P(N),N)
810      !
820      FNEND
830      !
840      !
850      !
860      !
870      ! SUB PROGRAM LU
880      !
890      SUB Lu(A(*),P(*),N,B(*),M)
900      !
910      DIM T(1:10)
920      INTEGER K,I,J,Ilim,Ic,H,Ip1
930      !
940      FOR K=1 TO M
950      T(1)=B(P(1),K)
960      FOR I=2 TO N
970      H=P(I)
980      T(I)=B(H,K)
990      Ilim=I-1
1000     FOR J=1 TO Ilim
1010     T(I)=T(I)-A(H,J)*T(J)

```

```
1020          NEXT J
1030          NEXT I
1040          T(N)=T(N)/A(P(N),N)
1050          B(N,K)=T(N)
1060          FOR I=2 TO N
1070          Ic=N+1-I
1080          H=P(Ic)
1090          Ip1=Ic+1
1100          FOR J=Ip1 TO N
1110          T(Ic)=T(Ic)-A(H,J)*T(J)
1120          NEXT J
1130          T(Ic)=T(Ic)/A(H,Ic)
1140          B(Ic,K)=T(Ic)
1150          NEXT I
1160          NEXT K
1170 SUBEND
1180 !
1190 !
1200 !
```

END

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